लाल बहादुर शास्त्री राष्ट्रीय प्रशासन अकादमी L.B.S. National Academy of Administration मसरी MUSSOORIE

पुस्तकालय LIBRARY

अवाप्ति संख्या Accession No.	152 118782
वर्ग संख्या	R
Class No	491.439045
पुस्तक संख्या Book No	fla

A GRAMMAR

OF THE

HINDŪSTĀNĪ OR URDŪ LANGUAGE.

GRAMMAR

OF THE

HINDŪSTĀNĪ

OR

URDŪ LANGUAGE.

BY

JOHN T. PLATTS.

LATE AN INSPECTOR OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN THE CENTRAL PROVINCES OF INDIA.

LONDON:

WM. H. ALLEN & CO., 13, WATERLOO PLACE, S.W. PUBLISHERS TO THE INDIA OFFICE,

1874.

PREFACE.

THE Grammar now offered to the public was begun in India many years ago; but its progress was so retarded by illness, press of official work, and other causes, that on my return to England about eighteen months ago, scarcely a third of it was in a form ready for the press.

It owes its origin to certain Indian friends, whose arguments, backed by the results of my own reading and observation, led me to conclude—(1) that, much as had been achieved in the field of Urdū Grammar by Europeans (and especially by Englishmen), that field had not been so thoroughly worked but that a great deal more might be won from it; (2) that no small portion of the work which had been done was of a kind that afforded room for improvement.

In justification of the first of these opinions, I would refer my readers to the large quantity of what is believed to be absolutely new matter that is to be found in almost every part of this work, and especially in the sections which treat of—(1) gender; (2) numerals; (3) Persian and Arabic constructions; (4) causal verbs; (5) compound verbs; (6) particles; (7) derivation of words; and in almost every chapter of the Syntax. In support of the second, I would point to the sections which treat of the construction—(1) of verbs and adjectives in connection with the broken plurals of the Arabic; (2) of nominal and frequentative verbs; (3) of the accusative

VI PREFACE.

case; (4) of predicative adjectives in construction with factitive verbs; (5) of the participles; and also to the sections which notice the different uses of the fragmentary verbs hai and tha, and the tenses of the subjunctive mood. In respect of some of these, the views propounded are so directly opposed to those maintained by preceding grammarians, that I have felt constrained to support them by foot-notes, remarks, citations from native grammars, and the opinions of native scholars; and thus the work has to some extent assumed a polemical character, for which I consider that some apology is due. This I offer the more readily, as I am conscious of being actuated by no motive beyond the simple desire to establish what, supported by the best native authorities, I hold to be correct views of the constructions in question.

Besides the additions and changes referred to above, I may also, I believe, claim to have succeeded in reducing to rule some constructions which have hitherto been regarded as arbitrary. And here I may be permitted to observe that there is little in the structure of Urdū of the loose and arbitrary character which some recent writers on the grammar of the language impute to it. It may be difficult to discover the rules for certain constructions; and, in many instances, native scholars, no doubt, are unable to assign a satisfactory reason for the forms they use; but it is surely inconsequent to conclude from these facts that rules in such cases cannot be discovered, and that native scholars cannot be trusted to compose correctly in their own tongue. .That "writers are guided by usage rather than by rule, and test the accuracy of a passage by

PREFACE. vii

the ear rather than by any recognized law," is, in the main, true. But this practice is by no means confined to Urdū writers; nor are they a whit more liable to err in following the guidance of usage and the ear than the many excellent speakers and writers in other living tongues who follow the same guides. Indeed, as far as constructions which constitute the marked peculiarities of the language are concerned, it may be safely affirmed that Urdū writers of even ordinary ability are scarcely likely to make a slip. When therefore a form or expression occurs in one or more standard authors which appears to violate some well-known rule, a foreigner would do well to pause ere he condemns it as a "transgression"; for it is infinitely more probable that he has not understood the construction, than that the authors have committed a palpable solecism.

One of the features peculiar to this Grammar which I would notice here are the remarks and notes that touch upon the derivation and origin of words, and the formation of the cases and tenses—a subject upon which so much light has been thrown of late years by the study of comparative grammar. Students of Urdū and Hindī in the schools of India especially will, I trust, find this portion of the work both interesting and instructive; --- and not only students, but those also who speak and write Urdū with perfect facility and accuracy. For it is notorious that Urdū scholars (and especially Mohammadans) are grossly ignorant of the origin of such words and inflexions in their language as are not derived from the Persian and Arabic. And the general restriction of their studies to these languages alone puts it out of their power to acquire a knowledge of the

VIII PREFACE.

linguistic discoveries of modern philologists in fields lying apart from them.

The arrangement and nomenclature of the work differ somewhat from those of preceding grammars. The declensions have been reduced to two; the numerals are noticed immediately after the attributive adjective; and the sections on Persian and Arabic constructions, treating as they do of substantives, adjectives, and numerals, it has been judged advisable to introduce immediately after the Urdū (Hindī) numerals, with the view of keeping the same parts of speech as much as possible together. These sections are, as has been already hinted, fuller and more complete than any notice of Persian and Arabic inflexions that has hitherto appeared in a grammar of Hindűstänī. Full as they are however, it would be presumptuous to say that they comprise all the constructions that occur in the language. But I trust I may say that they contain few that do not occur. The student will find it to his advantage to read these sections through—without dwelling on them at first; but more carefully on a second perusal, after he has made some acquaintance with Urdū literature; for Persian and Arabic, although not the back-bone, so to speak, form very important members of Urdu, and hence a knowledge of some of the principal facts of their inflexion is indispensable to a correct understanding and use of the language.

The examples under the more important rules of the Syntax are numerous and varied. In their selection I have not confined myself to the Bāg o Bahār and a few other works compiled about the same comparatively remote period—works which, however excellent they

may be, can hardly be supposed to furnish examples of all the constructions and idioms current even in their day, much less of those now in use; and which may certainly be supposed to contain not a little that is now. obsolete or rare—but have also drawn from more modern works, such as the Fasāna'č 'Ajā'ib, the Urdū Reader (a work published under the authority of the Government of the N.W. Provinces of India), etc., and also from some of the best native newspapers; e.g. the Sho'la'e Tūr of Kānhpūr, and the 'Alīgarh Institute Gazette. the examples under some of the rules be regarded as too copious, I would urge the importance of the rules themselves in such cases, or the misconception that has hitherto prevailed respecting the constructions exemplified; and also that, while the copiousness of the examples is calculated to impress the rules on the student's mind, their generally varied character and full propositional form will have the advantage of introducing him to diversities both of idiom and style.

In the preparation of the work I have made free, but not, I trust, unfair, use of the Grammars of my predecessors, and especially of those published in recent years by native scholars: e.g. the Urdū Grammar of M. Imām Bakhsh of the Dehlī College; the Ķawā'idu'lmubtadī of M. Karīmu'd-dīn; the Ķawā'idĕ Urdū (a work published under the authority of the Government of the North-West Provinces of India). I have also obtained much assistance from the following works: (1) the Prākrita-Prakāśa of Professor Cowell; (2) the Sindhī Grammar of Dr. Trumpp (a work to which I am greatly indebted for direct help as well as numerous hints touching the derivation of Hindī words); (3) the Gram-

X PREFACE.

matica Linguae Persicae of Dr. Vullers; (4) the Arabic Grammar of Professor Wright. And, lastly, I have at various times obtained much valuable information from several native scholars in India, and especially from Maulavīs Shaikh 'Abdullāh of Kānhpūr, Moḥammad Rizā of Ilāhābād, 'Alī Aṣgar of Ajmer, and Ṣafdar 'Alī of Jabalpūr, to whom I take this opportunity of offering my grateful thanks for the aid they were always so ready to afford me in my Oriental studies.

In spite of the greatest possible care in preparing the MS. and correcting the press, some omissions and errors have been discovered in the work, and it is probable that others of a not very serious character (as, for example, the omission of dots and vowel marks) have escaped detection. It must not be imagined, however, that every instance of omission of a long vowel mark is an oversight. The Persian numeral $d\bar{u}$, for example, is generally written du, because the vowel is pronounced short; and the long vowel of the Arabic words $f\bar{\imath}$, $z\bar{u}$, etc., being always shortened in pronunciation before the conjunctive alif, is of course not marked long. A list of such errors as have been discovered is given further on, and the reader is requested to correct them in the text before perusing it.

JOHN T. PLATTS.

London, 1st November, 1873.

CONTENTS.

CHAP. I.		ï
	THE LETTERS, PRONUNCIATION OF	4
	THE VOWELS AND OTHER ORTHOGRAPHIC SIGNS	9
	DIOI OVCID	9
	Tanwin or Nunation	0
	Jazm 1	O
	Tashdid 1	1
	Long Vowels and Diphthongs 1	1
	Hamza	3
	Wasl	6
	Madd	7
	DIVISION OF A WORD INTO SYLLABLES 1	7
	NUMERICAL VALUE OF THE LETTERS 2, 3, 1	8
	SPECIAL NUMERICAL FIGURES	
	Exercise in Reading	
CHAP. II.	THE PARTS OF SPEECH	
	1. The Article	
	II. THE NOUN-SUBSTANTIVE	
	1. Gender	
	- Landonnine by a orine to the contract of the	4
		27
		30
		3
	Plural of Masculine Nouns 3	
	Plural of Feminine Nouns 3	
	3. Declension	6
	Postpositions used in forming the Cases 3	7
	The Formative 3	8
	The First Declension	
	The Second Declension 4	2
	Construction of the Genitive Case 4	3
	III. THE ADJECTIVE	
	Declension 4	_
	Comparison	_
	Intensive Forms 4	
	Adjective of Similitude	-
	IV. Numerals	
	Cardinals	
	Ordinals	
	Collective Numerals	
	Distributions and Multiplications	
	Distributives and Multiplicatives 57	
	Numeral Adverbs	
	Fractional Numbers 55	
	Raķam 6	0

	PAG
[PERSIAN CONSTRUCTIONS	6
GENDER AND DECLENSION OF NOUNS	6
Construction of the Genitive Case	6
Compounds formed by Inverting this Con- struction	6:
Construction of the Vocative Case	6
** ** ** ** ** **	6
Construction of an Adjective	64
Compounds formed by Inverting this Con-	0.
struction	64
Comparison of Adjectives	64
THE INFINITIVE AND ROOT.	68
VERBAL ADJECTIVES	68
	68
Past and Passive Participles	66
Active Participles, Nouns of Agency, etc.	
SUFFIXES FORMING NOUNS OF AGENCY, ATTRIBUTIVES, ETC.	69
Possessive Adjectives	70
Negative Adjectives	78
Adjectives denoting Similitude	74
Adjectives denoting Fitness	75
Relative Adjectives	76
Adjectives denoting Colour	78
Adjectives denoting Companionship	78
Nouns of Place	79
Abstract Nouns	81
Diminutives	83
Compounds	83
Copulative Compounds	84
Numeral Adjectives	85
Cardinals	85
Ordinals	86
Distributives	86
Multiplicatives, and Numeral Adverbs .	87
ARABIC CONSTRUCTIONS	87
INFINITIVE OR VERBAL NOUNS OF THE GROUND FORM.	88
Verbal Adjectives	89
VERBAL NOUNS OF THE DERIVED FORMS	92
VERBAL ADJECTIVES OF THE DERIVED FORMS.	96
Possessive Adjectives	98
RELATIVE ADJECTIVES	99
A November on Owner and	100
Normal on Drago and Trago	101
D	102
Gender and Number of Noung.	102
TO.	103
	103
TO 1 TO 1	105
	112
Distributives, Multiplicatives, Fractions	112 112
Distributives, accomplicatives, Fractions	. 10
v. The Personal Pronouns	113
Declension	

CONTENTS.	XIII
CHAP. II. (continued)	PAGR
vi. The Demonstrative Pronouns Declension vii. The Relative Pronoun viii. The Correlative Pronoun ix. The Interrogative Pronoun x. The Indefinite Pronoun Emphatic Forms	116
Declension	117
VII. THE RELATIVE PRONOUN	119
VIII. THE CORRELATIVE PRONGEN	120
IX. THE INTERROGATIVE PRONOUN	120
x. The Indefinite Pronoun	122
Emphatic Forms	122
Compound Forms	123
Emphatic Forms	124
The Pronomen Reverence	125
XII. RECIPROCAL PRONOUNS	126
XIII. Possessive Pronouns	126
XIV. PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES	127
CHAP. III. THE VERB	
CHAP. III. THE VERB	100
THE INFINITIVE OR GERUND	129
THE NOUN OF AGENCY	130
THE IMPERFECT AND PERFECT PARTICIPLES	131
Irregular Participles	132
Declension of the Participles	133
THE PAST CONJUNCTIVE PARTICIPLE	134
THE IMPERATIVE	135
THE PRECATIVE	136
The Simple Tenses	139
CHAP. III. The Verb The Infinitive or Gerund The Noun of Agency The Imperfect and Perfect Participles Irregular Participles Declension of the Participles The Past Conjunctive Participle The Imperative The Precative The Precative The Aorist The Past Indefinite The Past Conditional The Compound Tenses The Future The Present Imperfect The Past Imperfect The Past Perfect The Past Perfect The Past Potential Conjugation of the Active Voice The Verb Likhnā, 'to write' The Verb Honā, 'to be' Additional Tenses Conjugation of the Passive Voice Derivative Verbs	139
The Past Indefinite	141
The Past Conditional	142
THE COMPOUND TENSES	142
The Future	142
The Present Imperfect	143
The Past Important	144
The Present Porfect	1.1.1
The Dest Perfect	1.15
The Dest Detential	145
Commenter of the America Votes	140
CONJUGATION OF THE ACTIVE VOICE	140
The vero Likhna, to write	147
The verb Chaina, 'to go'	150
The Verb Hona, 'to be'	153
Additional Tenses	156
CONJUGATION OF THE PASSIVE VOICE	157
CONJUGATION OF THE PASSIVE VOICE DERIVATIVE VERBS I. CAUSAL VERBS II. DENOMINATIVE VERBS	161
	161
11. DENOMINATIVE VERBS	167
III. COMPOUND VERBS AND FORMS	169
Nominals	169
intensives .,	170 171
Potentials	171
Potentials	172
Continuatives and Staticals	173
Frequentatives	175
Completives	176

Derivative Verbs (continued)	PAGE
Transitives formed with a Conj. Part	177
Inceptives, Permissives, Acquisitives .	178
Desideratives, Reiteratives	179
CHAP. IV. Particles	
I. Adverbs	181
Original Hindī Adverbs	181
• Nouns in the Locative or Ablative Case .	182
Pronominal Adverbs	183
• Compound Adverbs	187
70 ° 41 1	188
4 1 4 3 3	189
Aradic Adverds	191
Genuine Postpositions governing the Formative	
Postpositions which govern the Genitive or	100
the Formative	193
Postpositions, originally Hindī Nouns (masc.)	194
Postpositions, originally Persian Nouns .	195
Postpositions, originally Arabic Nouns .	196
Persian and Arabic Prepositions	199
111. Conjunctions	200
• IV. Interjections	201
77	
CHAP. V. Derivation of Words	203
1. Abstract Nouns	203
II. Nouns of Agency, Attributives, eic	208
III. DIMINUTIVES	216
IV. Compounds	218
SYNTAX.	
CHAP. VI. I. THE PARTS OF A SENTENCE	223
II. THE ORDER OF THE WORDS IN A SENTENCE	228
III. CONCORD OF THE SUBJECT AND PREDICATE .	236
CHAP. VII. a. The Absence of the Article	244
b. The Relation of Substantives in a Sentence	245
I. THE NOMINATIVE	246
II. THE AGENT'	248
III. THE GENITIVE	250
IV. THE DATIVE	$\frac{250}{260}$
v. The Accusative	264
Cognate	268
Double	268
Factitive	269
m A	272
T T	281
VII. THE LOCATIVE	289
	209
CHAP. VIII. ADJECTIVES •	
I. ATTRIBUTIVE	290
11. NUMERAL	294
CHAP. IX. Pronouns	
I, PERSONAL.	298

CONTENTS.	xγ

CHAP. IX. PR	conouns (continued)		PAGE.
11.	Demonstrative		302
111.	Relative	-	305
	DEMONSTRATIVE RELATIVE 1. The Conjunctive Sentence 2. The Qualificative Sentence Interrogative		305
	2. The Qualificative Sentence		311
IV.	INTERROGATIVE		313
v.	INTERROGATIVE		317
			320
CHAP X THE	VERB (ACTIVE VOICE) REAL NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES THE INFINITIVE. THE NOUN OF AGENCY THE PARTICIPLES IMPERFECT AND PERFECT PAST CONJUNCTIVE. SES OF THE INDICATIVE MOOD THE AGRIST THE INDEFINITE FUTURE. THE PRESENT THE PAST IMPERFECT THE PAST IMPERFECT THE PAST INDICTIVE. THE PAST PERFECT E IMPERATIVE AND PRECATIVE SES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD THE AGRIST THE PAST POTENTIAL THE PAST POTENTIAL THE PAST CONDITIONAL E PASSIVE VOICE SEAL VERBS INTENSIVES, POTENTIALS, COMPLETIVES, CONTINALY INTENSIVES, POTENTIALS, POTE		•
Vrp	OULT NOTICE AND ADJECTIVES		39.1
ı,ı,	The Interior	•	394
71	Tue Nous of Agency		399
717	Tue Papercutes	•	331
111.	TRUPPOPOT AND PROPERCY		331
	PAST CONTINCTIVE	•	2.11
Tur	CER OF THE INDICATIVE MOOD		2.12
IEA	Tue Apper	•	313
1.	The Low rooms Errens		919
11.	THE INDEFENTER	•	210
111.	Turn Dear Introduction		250
17.	The Dan Improvement	•	959
٧.	THE PAST INDEFINITE		000
\1.	Tan Danie Depresa	•	250
VII.	INE LAST LERGICT		957
THE	TAPERATIVE AND TRECATIVE	•	001 0#1
11.8	The American		901
1.	THE ACRIST	•	900
11.	The Dram Dominion		907
111.	The Past Comments	•	001
1V.	Description		000
C	S L'ASSIVE VOICE	•	071
Cau	SAL VERBS		070
Cox	POUND VERBS	•	313
	Intensives, Potentials, Completives, Contin	τ-	074
	ATIVES	*	3/4
	F REQUENTATIVES, DESIDERATIVES	_	375
	TRANSITIVES FORMED WITH CONJUNCTIVE PA	R-	070
7 0	TICIPLES		376
PHR	ASES	•	375
	TICIPLES		377
		•	3/8
CHAP. XI. PAR	RTICLES		
Adv	POSITIONS AND POSTPOSITIONS	•	38 1
Pre	POSITIONS AND POSTPOSITIONS		383
Con	junctions		386
	COORDINATE COMBINATION		386
	JUNCTIONS		390
CHAP. XII. TE	TE DIRECT ORATION		395
APPENDIX			
	THE MOHAMMADAN CALENDAR. THE HINDŪ CALENDAR.		396
	THE HINDŪ CALFNDAR		398

HINDŪSTĀNĪ GRAMMAR.

PART L-ORTHOGRAPHY.

CHAPTER J.

I. THE ALPHABET.

1. Urdū, or Hindūstānī, though a composite language, is derived mainly from the Hindī. The Persian and Arabic languages have contributed largely, but Hindī is the chief source. Like Persian and Arabic it is written and read from right to left, and books written in it begin at the page which, in an English book, would be the last. The letters (حُرُفُ ٱلنَّبَجَى hurufu 'ttahajjī) are thirty-five in number, and are all consonants, though three of them are also used as vowels. When grouped into words, they are (with nine exceptions) connected with one another, and several of the letters assume somewhat different shapes according as they stand at the beginning, in the middle, or at the end of a connected group. The following Table exhibits the several forms of the letters, along with their names and numerical values.

	_	Uncon-	Conr	ected F	orm :	Exc	mplification	on of	Numeri-
Name.	Power.	rected Form.	Final.	Medial.	Initial.	Final.	Medial	Initial.	val Value.
فا alif		1	ť	١	1	تَا	بار	آب	1
<i>be</i> بے	ь	ب	ب	÷	ڊ بر	جَب	خَبَر	بَد	2
e pe	p	پ	ِ پ	\$	ړټ	تَپ	سِپَر	پَس	$[2]^{2}$
te تے	t	ت	ت	2	ڌ تر	مُنت	لغَرَه	تب	400
te,or) قاطل الله	ţ	ٿ1	ٿ	=	ڙ ٿر	<u></u> هُٿ	مَلْأُر	ٿيپ	[400]
e ثے ا	s:	ث	ث	۵	ۋ مر	جُحث	کثر	ثنا	500
im جبم	j	ر	ج	ż	7	لمج	فجر	جب	3
== che	ch	E	پ	ê	\$	سپ	بڅز	چُپ	[3]
ے he	ķ	כ	ح	5	~	صابح	بخث	حرف	8
خے <u>lih</u> e	<u>kh</u>	خ	ڗ	Ė	خد	ماخ	<u>ب</u> خش	خال	600
ال dal	d	د	د	ىد	د	بد	فِدا	دست	4
da ٿه	d,	ڐ	ڐ	ڐ	ڐ	مُنڌ	نِڐر	<i>ڏال</i>	[1]
تهي ذال	£	ن	ذ	ذ	ن	كاغذ	نذر	ذات	700
re ري	r	ر	ر	ر	ر	جر	برد	راد	200
ra ڙه	r	ڙ	ا ڙ	ڙ	ڙ	جڙ	بزا	ڙوڙا	[200]
ع زي	z	ز	ا ز	ز	ز	گز	بزم	زر	7
zhe ژي	zh	ا ژ	اژ	اژ	ا ژ	بثۋ	مُؤده	ژر ف	[7]
ه ₹۶ سین	8	س	<u>س</u>		س	بس	نسب	سر	60
shīn شبن	sh	اش	ا ش	ش	۵	غش	حشر	شب	300

¹ Instead of ",", etc., the forms b, etc., are commonly used in books printed and lithographed in India. The form is peculiar to books printed in England.

² The brackets are intended to show that these letters had originally no value, but afterwards received the same value as the cognate Arabic letters

Name.	Power	Uncon- nected		Connected Form:			Exemplification of		
Nume.	TOWEI.			Medial.	Initial.	Final.	Medial.	Initial.	value.
باد جقط	ş	ص	ص	ص	ص	خلص	قصب	صاف	90
يقط بقاد	٠ ۽	ض	<u>ض</u>	فہ	فه	بعض	حضر	ضبر	800
100 طوي	<u>t</u>	ط	ط	ㅂ	ط	خط	خطا	طاق	9
гое ظوي	z.	ظ	ظ	브	ظ	حفظ	نظر	ظفر	900
ain عين	ʻa	ع	ح		æ	صنع	بعد	عسل	70
gain غین	g	غ	خ	ż	٤	تيغ	بغل	غسل	1000
fe فے	f	ف	غ	ĸ	ۏ	سلف	سفر	فرح	80
kāf قاف	ķ	ق	ق	ڲ	ۊ	طبق	نقل	قمر	100
كاف kāf	k	ک	ک	٤	٤	نیک	بكر	کام	20
gāf گاف	g	کت	کت	٤	\$	الگت	مگس	گل	[20]
lām لام	l	ل	ل	7	\$	حمل	طلب	لعل	30
mīm • בי	m	م	م	*~	•	قلم	ا قمر) اقمر ا	مال	40
nān ئون	n	ان	ن	ند ا	ا ذ نر	مس	منع	نعل	50
wā'o واو	w	ا و	و	و	و	بو	پور	وحل	6
ے he	h	٥	ام ۵	÷÷	۵	نه	(كيا) (كها)	هنر	5
<i>ye</i> یے	y	ی	(ي) اے ا	#	ا يا 2-	(بي) (بي)	بید	ياد	10

Rem. a. The form \nearrow is used for the letters b, p, t, t, s, n, y, before $\not \equiv j, \not \equiv ch, \not \equiv h$, and $\not \equiv kh$, as in the words $\not \equiv takht$, $\not \equiv bach$.

Rem. b. I in connection with a preceding J forms the figures J, J. This combination is generally reckoned a letter of the alphabet, and inserted before L, to the perplexity of many grammarians, who, ignorant of the reason why it is placed there, erroneously call it $l\bar{a}m$ -

alif, whereas it is nothing else than the name of the alif of prolongation (see § 11, Rem. c.) written at full length. It must not be confounded with the consonant \ (or the hamzated alif, or hamza, as it is commonly called), the first letter of the alphabet.

Rem. b. The letters عن جال با بن بن بن بن بن بن من من عبد are peculiar to Arabic words. هن is to be met with in a few Persian words (e.g. هند عمل 'a hundred'), but in every such instance an original هن ه has been changed to بن عبد The letters بن بن عبد و الله عبد و مسلم عبد و الله عبد الله

never in those derived from the Arabic. ٿ, ٿ, ۽, and the ten aspirated letters پ, به, etc., can occur in Hindī words alone. The remaining letters are common to Hindī, Persian, and Arabic words.

3. The letters 1, 2, 3, 3, 1, 7, and are joined to a preceding letter, provided it be not one of their own number, but not generally to a following one. The letters L and L are connected with both a preceding and a following letter, but their form remains unchanged.

Rem. The above rule is strictly true only of the printed character. In writing and in lithographed books these letters, with the exception of l, are frequently joined to a following h, if it be final: e.g. P didu.

4. The correct pronunciation of some of the letters, as, for example, τ and ξ , it is scarcely possible for a European to acquire. Most of them, however, are sufficiently represented by the corresponding English characters, as may be seen from the following remarks:

I alif, or hamza (as it is commonly called, to distinguish it from the alif of prolongation), is the spiritus lenis of the Greeks. It may be compared with h in the English hour.

- ψ and ψ are our b and p.
- is much softer and more dental than the English t. In pronouncing it, the tip of the tongue should be placed against the edge or the back of the upper teeth.
- than a heavier sound than our t, but it represents it more closely than ω does. In pronouncing it the tip of the tongue is applied to the back part of the mouth,

¹ This t is termed تَاتِّي مُثَمَّلَهُ tā'č muṣaḥḥalu 'the heavy t,' and the same epithet is applied to the letters "عامل "."

- م, س, س are all sounded alike, like our hard s in sit.1
- τ has the sound of j in the English jail.
- is the English ch, as in church.
- is a very sharp, but smooth guttural aspirate, stronger than s, but not rough like $\dot{\tau}$. Its sound approximates to that of our h in huge.
- \mathcal{S} is softer and more dental than our d. It is pronounced in the same way as our \mathcal{S} , by placing the tongue against the back of the upper teeth.
- $\ddot{3}$ has a sound resembling the English d in dame; but it is generally heavier. It is pronounced by applying the tip of the tongue to the back part of the roof of the mouth,
- غ and ظ have all one sound in Urdū, viz. that of our z in zeal.
- is, in all positions, a distinctly uttered lingual r, as pronounced by the French and Germans.
- " is a heavy sounding r, uttered by turning the tip of the tongue towards the roof of the mouth, as in the case of \ddot{S} , with which letter it is interchangeable.
 - f has the sound of our z in azure.
 - is represented by our sh, as in shut.
- b is a strongly palatal t; but by all except, perhaps, the educated Musalman, it is pronounced like \Box .
- E has a strong guttural sound, pronounced by a smart compression of the upper part of the wind-pipe, and forcible emission of the breath. Its correct pronunciation is rarely heard in India, and is scarcely to be acquired by a European.
 - $\dot{\xi}$ is a guttural g, accompanied by a grating or rattling sound as in

is pronounced like our th in thing; س like s in sit; ص somewhat like ss in hiss; الله slike th in this; j as the common English z; ف like a strongly articulated palatal d, and b, either like ف, or as a strongly articulated palatal z.

gargling, of which English affords no example. The Northumbrian r, and the French r in grasseye, are approximations to it.

is our f.

is a strongly articulated guttural k, of which we have no example in English. It closely resembles the sound uttered by a crow in its caw.

is our k.

has the sound of our g in get, give; never that of g in gem, geol, gibe.

J, are exactly equivalent to the English l, m.

ن has three distinct sounds: it has the sound of the English n in not—1) When it occurs at the beginning of a word or syllable, as منام nām; 2) at the end of a word or syllable, when preceded by a short vowel, as به ban; 3) in all Arabic words in which it is not immediately followed by به b. It is nasal (مناه gunna), or indistinct (نخ khafā), like the French n in bon—1) When it is quiescent (i.e. not movent), and immediately preceded by a long vowel; e.g. المناه المناه barson, برسول barson, المناه sānp, المناه āndhī, المناه ألمناه ألم

¹ There are numerous exceptions to the rule in the case of Hindī words; a good test, perhaps, is the method of writt: g · if a word can be written with either n or m (before b or p), the n invariably has the sound of m . e.g. المنا المسلمة : أن المسلمة : if n cannot be replaced by n in writing, then it has a nasal or obscure sound; as بالمسلمة chambēlī. To say, as all the grammarians do, that "n immediately preceding b or p always has the sound of m," is quite wrong; for if a long vowel precede the n, it almost invariably has a nasal sound: e.g. المنابعة عالمة تأليا المنابعة المنابعة المنابعة عالمة تأليا المنابعة ال

champā, Lambā.—In these pages nasal n, when final, will be printed without the dot, thus o; and in the Roman character it will, in all positions, be indicated by n with a dot (n).

Rem. a. Final h can only be silent when it is not an original letter. It is found chiefly in Persian and Arabic words, in the latter of which it is a servile letter forming (originally) feminine nouns: e.g. who malika, 'queen,' from alik, 'king;' muhāwara, 'idiom,' from the Arabic fem. muhāwarat: in the former it is used simply to convey the sound of the preceding short vowel (fatha).

Rem. b. Of the medial forms of h, ϵ is conventionally used to aspirate the letters ι , ι , ι , ι , ι , ι , etc., as has been shown in § 2, the form ι being employed when it is to be pronounced as a separate letter; but this distinction is not generally regarded in India.

The aspirated letters $\rightleftharpoons bh$, $\rightleftharpoons ph$, etc., are uttered with a greater effort of breath than usual, and by one action of the vocal organ; there is no pause between the b, p, etc., and the h. The only one of these

letters which has an English equivalent is $\ddot{\psi}$, which is sounded like th in our thick. The sounds of ph, th, etc., are said by grammarians to resemble those of the same combinations in our words, up-hill, hot-house, etc.; but this is searcely correct.

II. THE VOWELS AND OTHER ORTHOGRAPHIC SIGNS.

- 5. The following signs are used to indicate the short vowels:
- 1) (called نَّ عَنْ عَلَيْهِ عَلَى ع above the consonant after which it is sounded, and is invariably pronounced like our a in cedar, or our u in bun: e.g. بَن ban, 'a forest.'
- 2) (called کَسْرَه kasra, or زير zer). It is written beneath the consonant after which it is pronounced, and has the sound of our *i* in pin: e.g. ني bin, 'without.'
- 3) (called پیش zamma, or پیش pesh). It is written over the consonant to which it belongs, and has the sound of u in pull: e.g. يُلُ pul, 'a bridge.'
- Rem. a. The short vowels kasra and zamma, when immediately followed by s, or by the harsh gutturals and e, are generally pronounced like obscure e and o respectively; as بن yèh, 'this,' نعل yèh, 'this,' غغل mèhnat. 'toil,' 'trouble,' مُحَمَّد Mòhammad, 'e غِلْل fè'l, 'action.' So also zamma preceded by the guttural k (ق) has the sound of b; as فَرَانَى kòr'ān.
- Rem. b. The three short vowels are collectively termed خرکات harakāt, 'motions;' and the letter which is accompanied by one of them is said to be تَحَرِّكُ mutaḥarrik, or 'movent.'

¹ Fatha, Lasra, zamma, are the Arabic names for the short vowels; zabar, zer, pesh, the Persian: both are commonly used by the native grammarians.

TANWIN. .

- 6. The marks of the short vowels when doubled are pronounced with the addition of the sound n, as an, in, un. This is called نرية tanwīn, or 'nūnation' (from the name of the letter nūn), and takes place only at the end of an Arabic word: e.g. نامة fauran, 'instantly,' masalan, 'for example,' أنه mushārun ilaih, 'the aforesaid.' The tanwin of futha (-) takes an l after all the consonants except i; but the tanwīn should always be written over the letter preceding the alif, and not over the alif itself. This alif in no way affects the quantity of the vowel, which is always short.
- Rem. a. If a word end in \, the tanuin with hamza (§ 13) is written after it; e.g. إِنْهِدَاءٌ ibtida'an, 'firstly,' 'originally.'
- Rem. b. The tanwin of zamma rarely occurs in Urdū; that of kasra perhaps never.

JAZM OR SURUN.

7. When a consonant is not accompanied by one of the three short vowels falha, kasra, and zamma, that is to say, when it occurs at the end of a shut syllable (and is therefore not سَارَتُ mutaharrik, or 'movent'), it is termed مَازَنُ majzūm, 'amputated,' or 'with sakin, 'resting' or 'quiescent,' and is then marked with the orthographic sign —, called مَازِنُ jazm, 'amputation,' or 'sukūn, 'rest,' which serves, when another syllable follows, to separate the two, e.g. مَازِنُ mārnā, 'to beat,' شَعِيد 'masjūl, 'a mosque.'

¹ The word quiescent is to be under-tood in its original signification of not moving, and not in the secondary sense of 'not sounded,' that it has in English grammar.

- Rem. a. When two or more quiescent letters occur together in a word, the first alone is termed سَاكِن sākin, and the others are termed مَوْقُوفُ mankūf, 'supported,' or 'dependent on;' e.g. in the word court dost, 'friend,' the jest termed sākin, but the wand are said to be mankūf.
- Rem. b. The jazm is not written over the last letter of a word, although that letter is, in all but a very few cases, quiescent.
- Rem. o. A few words begin with two consonants, the first having no vowel; e.g. کیل kyā, 'what,' کیوں kyon, 'why,' بُراکْمَن brāhman, 'a Brāhman.' It is not customary to write juzm over the first letter in these words, since a quiescent consonant is not supposed to occur at the beginning of a word. When the second of the two letters is r, the first is not unfrequently pronounced with kasra, e.g birāhman. Sometimes the r is elided, as in

TASHDID.

8. A consonant that is to be doubled, or 'strengthened,' (مُشَدُّهُ mushaddad) is written only once, but marked with the —, called تَشْديد tashdīd, 'strengthening,' e.g. الله kuwwat (not kūwat), 'power.' The first of the double letters ends the preceding syllable, and the second begins the following, as tasar-ruf; and each of them must be distinctly pronounced, and not slurred over as the double letters are in the English words manner, mummy.

Rom. The tashdīd is not generally used in the case of infinitives, the roots of which end in نَا نَا عَلَىٰ jānnā, 'to know,' سُنّا sunnā, 'to hear,' not اسّنا and اسْنا على الله على

LONG YOWELS AND DIPHTHONGS.

9. The long vowels $(\bar{u}, \bar{i}, \bar{u})$ are indicated by placing the marks of the short vowels before the corresponding

- 11. The short vowel fatha before عن and, forms the diphthongs ai and au, as exemplified in the English aisle, and the German haus, (or in the English house): c.g. haif, 'pity,' حَرْف hauz, 'reservoir.'
- Rem. a. \, and ي , when they form vowels, are termed letters of prolongation (المُعَنَّ الْمَدُ الْمُدَالِقِيْنَ الْمُدُ الْمُدَالِقِيْنَ الْمُدُ الْمُدَالِمُ اللهِ اللهُ الل
 - Rem. b. The letters of prolongation, though they are qui-scent, are

Rem. c. The alif of prolongation is, by some grammarians, regarded as a letter of the alphabet, and named $\mathbb{Z}[l\bar{a}]$, the \mathbb{J} with fatha being prefixed to it because it cannot be pronounced at the beginning of its own name, as every other letter can (see § 1, Rem. b).

12. The alif of prolongation is omitted in some Arabic words, but the omission is indicated by the preceding fatha being written perpendicularly: e.g. (for رحمان) rahmān, 'most merciful,' خذا (for اهاذا) hāzā, 'that.' The perpendicular fatha represents a small alif.

Rem. a. In a few Arabic words the perpendicular fatha is followed by or عن; in such cases these letters are sounded like the alif of prolongation; e.g. صَلُود salāt, 'prayer,' أُوليتر (or أُوليتر) aulātar, 'better.'

Rem. b. ي at the end of a word after fatha is pronounced like 1, which is generally written over it, e.g. ي مُعْرَى مَ كَعْرِي da'wā, 'claim,' الْفُ الْمُغْصُورِة is termed الْفُ الْمُغْصُورِة is termed الْفُ الْمُغْصُورِة alifu'l makṣāra, 'the abbreviated alif,' in contradistinction to 'the lengthened alif' (﴿ 17). It is so named because, when it comes in contact with 'the conjunctive alif' (الْمُعُمُّ الْمُعَالِيُّ الْمُعَالِيْنِ اللهُ اللهُ الْمُعَالِيْنِ اللهُ الله

THE HAMZATED ALIF, OR HAMZA.

13. Alif, when it is not a mere letter of prolongation, but a consonant, pronounced like the spiritus lenis, is distinguished by the mark - hamza (soc), either expressed or implied, and is commonly called hamza. When it

Rem. a. According to Arabic grammarians, a syllable cannot begin with a vowel; but every vowel must be preceded by a symbol indicating the movement of the vocal organ whereby the emission of the breath is produced. Now, in uttering what we regard as an initial vowel, there takes place (in the fauces), according to this theory, a sudden emission of the voice after a total suppression; and this is represented by the symbol for in hamza, which signifies prick, impulse. This effort of utterance (which, not being a vowel, comes to be ranked as a consonant) the Greeks represented by the mark ('). In the pronunciation of an Arab the hamza is a very perceptible articulation, especially at the commencement of a syllable in the middle of a word, preceding a shut syllable; e.g. kõr'an, jur'at (not kõ-rān, and ju-rat).

- 14. When humza occurs at the beginning of a syllable not the first in a word, the following cases arise:
- 1). If it be pronounced with futha, it generally appears in the form of alif with hamza: e.g سُواً عَنْ عَنْ اللهُ عَنْ اللّهُ عَنْ
- 2). If it be accompanied by zamma, and preceded by one of the letters of prolongation, it generally takes the form of hamza alone ($\stackrel{\cdot}{-}$): e.g. $j\bar{u}$, ' $j\bar{u}$,' shall, or should, I go?' $p\bar{a}$ 'on, 'foot,' $j\bar{u}$, \bar{u} $ns\bar{u}$ 'on, 'tears,' $j\bar{v}$ ' $n\bar{u}$, '(if) I live.' If it be moved by kasra, and followed by the majhūl g, hamza alone may be written,

- or ئى may be used, but the former is the more common : e.g. پائىي or پائىي or پائىي or پائىي or پائىي $h\bar{u}'e$, 'been.'
- 3). If it is pronounced with kasra, and preceded by a letter of prolongation, or by fatha, it generally passes into $\dot{\omega}$ (in which case it is correct to omit the two points of the letter (2): e.g. وَمُعَالِمُ $jud\bar{u}'\bar{\imath}$, 'separation,' فَائِدُهُ $f\bar{u}'ida$, 'advantage,' فَاجَائِش $gunj\bar{u}'ish$, 'capacity,' 'room,' $k\bar{u}'\bar{\imath}$, 'been, کوئِي $k\bar{u}'\bar{\imath}$, 'been, کوئِي $k\bar{u}'\bar{\imath}$, 'several.'
- Rem. a. I sometimes passes into غ : e.g. مُوتَنْ mu'annaṣ, 'feminine,' مُوتَنْ يَعْمُ أُوسِ إِنْ يَعْمُ اللهِ يَعْمُ اللهُ ال
- Rem. b. Hamza is often found at the end of a syllable in Arabic words: e.g. مُوْمِن , تَأْشُر . In such eases the hamza is changed (in Urdū) into the letter of prolongation corresponding to the preceding short vowel: e.g. مُوْمِن taṣṣīr, 'effect,' مُوْمِن māmin, 'believer.'
- Rem. c. The letters \, , and ي are termed خُرُوف عِلَت hurvfe 'illat, 'weak letters,' on account of the changes to which they are subject among themselves.
- Rem. d. Hamza, as its character indicates, is the abbreviation of ξ , which is in fact but an aggravation of the spiritus lenis. This may guide the student to some extent in pronouncing the ξ ; but as we have observed before, it is almost impossible for an Englishman to acquire the true pronunciation of this letter; and it is quite impossible to explain the true sound in writing: it must be learned by the ear alone. A Hindū makes scarcely any distinction between the sounds

سن 'ib, بغ 'ub, and those of بأ ab, بأ ib, بأ ub; but in the mouth of an educated Mohammadan they are very different sounds. When we have occasion to write Hindūstānī in the Roman character, hamza in the middle of a word will be represented by the Greek symbol ('), and على by that symbol inverted: e.g. pā'on (عَلَى), 'alam (عَلَى). Hamza at the beginning of a word will be omitted.

WASL.

15. The mark (=), called منان wast, 'union,' occurs in Urdū only over the consonant I of the Arabic article ال in phrases from the Arabic, e.g. اَوِبِرُ ٱلْمُووِسْسِين amīru 'l mūminīn, 'Commander of the Faithful,' الشرف آلاشراف ashrafu 'l ashraf, 'the noblest of the noble,' لِمَا كُلُلُ bi'lkull (pronounced bil-kull), 'in the totality,' 'completely.' ·In such phrases the 1 at the commencement of the article is absorbed by the final vowel of the preceding word and the mark = written over the alif indicates the clision of the spiritus lenis. The, and of prolongation, as also 'the abbreviated alif' (alife maksūra, _ or 15-, § 12, Rem. b.), are shortened in pronunciation before an alif with wasl: e.g. في آغَوْر ft 'l faur, 'on the instant,' 'instantly,' بُو ٱلْهُوس 'l hawas, 'possessed of desire,' 'desirous,' دَعْوَي ٱلْمُتَأْخِرِين adwa'l mula'akhkhirin, 'the claim, or assertion, of the moderns.' These words are invariably pronounced as though they were written فِنْهُور filfaur, كُعُولُمُّتاً تَجْرِين bulhawas, كَعُولُمُّتاً تَجْرِين da'walmula'akhkhirīn.

Rem. Alif with wast (أَ) is altogether omitted in the first word of the introductory formula بِسَمِ اللّٰه (for بِالسَّمِ الله bismillāh, 'in the name of God,' and also after the Arabic preposition لِلْعَالَمِينِ. li, 'to': e.g. لِنَّعَالَمِينَ 'to the worlds.'

Rem. The letters ت, ت, etc., mentioned above, are called حُرُونُ hurufu 'shshamsiya, or 'the solar letters,' because the word شَمْس shams, 'sun,' happens to begin with one of them; and the other letters of the Arabic alphabet are termed خُرُونُ النَّمَرِيّة hurufu'l kamariya, or 'the lunar letters,' because قَمَ kamar, 'moon,' commences with one of them.

MADD.

17. At the beginning of a word or syllable the sound of long $a(\bar{a})$ is represented by the alif of prolongation preceded by the inaudible consonant. The two alifs are commonly represented in writing by one with the sign of prolongation, \cong , madd (∞ i.e. lengthening, extension), placed over it: e.g. $= \bar{1} \bar{a}j$, 'to-day' (for $= \bar{1} \bar{a}j$), 'water,' $= \bar{1} \bar{a}j$, 'and alif with madd can only occur at the beginning of a syllable.

Rem. T is called الق مَمَدُّود alife mamdāda, 'the lengthened alif.' in contradistinction to 'the abbreviated or short alif' (القِبِ مَغْضُورَة) alife maksāra, § 12, Rem. b.).

18. The attainment of a correct pronunciation will be materially facilitated by a strict attention to the rule for

dividing a word correctly into syllables. Every syllable begins with a movable consonant, and every word has just as many syllables as it has vowels. Hence a syllable consists of a consonant and a vowel, or a consonant, a vowel, and any following quiescent consonants: e.g. مركب bhū-khū, 'hungry.' أبرك ha-ra-kat, 'motion,' درخت ha-ra-kat, 'motion,' درخت la-bas-sum, 'smile.'

¹ The yā' i ma' k ū, or 'reversed μ,' can only be employed, in the Arabic character, when connected with a preceding letter.

the alphabet according to their numerical values is called the *abjud*, and is contained in the following eight unmeaning words:

ابَّجِد هوز حُطِى كَلَمِّن صَعَّفُ قُرِشت شَخُد. ضطَّغ The value of each letter will be found in the Table of the Alphabet.

20. The special numerical figures are

which are compounded in exactly the same way as our numerals: c.g. \\T 1873.

21. The following passage, with the transcript in English letters, will serve as a useful exercise in reading for the student, and also to exemplify the most important of the remarks in the preceding paragraphs.

سِنْدُباد جہازِي کا پہٹلا سفر *

سند بالد نے کہا۔ مَیْس نے جو دَوْلت آور جایداد آپنے باپ کے ترکے سے پائیی تبی عالم شباب میں عَبَاشِی کرکے سب خرچ کر ڈالی۔ اور پہر آپنی حمانت آور نادانی پر مُطّلع دوکر کمال نادم آور پشیمان مُوّا۔ آور اُس دَوْلتِ کشِیر آور مال و اسباب کے ضائع کرنیکا بہت افسوس کیا۔ دانیشمندوں کا یہہ قول کے "مُخلِسی سے مرّجانا بہتر مَی" یاد کرتا اور اُسکو آپنے حسب حال پانا۔ اور مبری باپ کا بیبی یہی قول تبا * آخِرُ آلاَمْر مِیراث کا بچا بچایا جو میری فَمُول خرْجِموں سے باقی رہ گیا تنا سب جمع کرکے بیجا۔ آور تاجِران بخرِی سے اپنے بات میں مشورد کیا۔ اُنیوں نے مُجہٰکو آجِہی صلح بتالئی۔ میں نے اُس رُوپی کو تجارت

میں لگادِیَا۔ آؤر تِجارت کا اسّباب خرِید کر اُن تاجِروں کے همْراه بنّدر بانسّرا کو گیا۔ آؤر وہاں سے۔ بَاِتِّفاق اُن سَبْکے۔ جہاز کِرایَه کُرْکے سوار هُوا * .

Sindbād jahāzī-kā pahlā safar.

Sindbūd-ne kahū, main-ne jo daulat aur jū'edād apne būp-ke tarike-se pū'ī thī, 'ālamë shabāb-men 'aiyūshī-karke sab khareh kar dūlī, aur phir apnī ḥamūķat aur nā-dūnī-par muṭṭali'-hokar kamūl nūdim aur pashemūn hū'ā, aur us daulatë kaṣīr aur māl o asbūb-ke zū'ë karne-kū bahut afsos kiyā; dānishmandon-kū yĕh ḥaul ki "muflisī-se mar-jūnā bĕhtar hai" yād-kartā, aur usho apne ḥasbē ḥūl pātā, aur mere būp-kā bhī yĕhī ḥaul thā. Ākhiru 'lamr mīrāṣ-kū bachū bachāyū jo merī fazūl-kharchiyon-se būķī rah-gayū thū, sab jam'-harke bechū, aur tājirūnĕ baḥrī-se apne būb-men mashwara kiyū; unhon-ne muh-ho achehhī ṣalūḥ batlā'ī; main-ne us rūpai-ko tijārat-men lagū-diyā, aur tijārat-kū asbūb kharīd-kar, un tājiron-ke ham-rāh bandar bānsrū-ko gayū, aur wahūn-se, bu-ittifūķ un sab-ke, jahūz kirāya-kar-ke sawār hū'ā.

TRANSLATION.

Sindbad the Sailor's First Voyage.

Sindbad said: Whatever wealth and property I inherited from my father's estate, I spent all in debauchery in the season of youth; and then, perceiving my folly and stupidity, became extremely ashamed and sorry, and much regretted having squandered that vast wealth and property; I used to call to mind the saying of the wise, 'Death is better than poverty,' and to find it in accordance with my predicament; this saying moreover was my father's also. Ultimately, collecting all the remnants of my inheritance, which had escaped my extravagances, I sold (them), and consulted some merchants (lit. seatraders) respecting myself; they gave me good counsel: I invested that money in commerce, and purchasing trading commodities, accompanied those merchants to the sea-port of Baṣrā, and thence, conjointly with them all, hired a ship, and embarked.

PART II.-ETYMOLOGY.

CHAPTER II.

THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

- 1°. The Substantive (إِنَّمَ مُوَعُوفُ ismě mausūf, or simply ism, 'the noun which is described or qualified').
- 2º The Adjective (المَّمِ عِنْت isme sifat, 'the noun indicating a quality').
- 3°. The Numerical Adjective (المَّرِ عدد isme 'adad, 'the noun of number').
- 4°. The Personal Pronoun (منجية غيمية, 'the noun that is kept in mind').
- 5°. The Demonstrative Pronoun (اِسْمِ إِشَارِه ismě ishāra, 'the noun of indication, or by which something is pointed out').
- 6°. The Relative Pronoun [السّم مَوْسُول isme mausīd, 'the noun that is connected' (with a relative clause)].

- 7°. The Interrogative Pronoun (اِسَمِ اِسْتِتْهَام ismë istifham, 'the noun that seeks information,' or 'the noun of questioning').
- . 8° The Indefinite Pronoun (اَسَمِ مُنْبَامِ ismë mubham, 'the indeterminate or indefinite noun').
- 9° The Infinitive, or Verbal Noun (مقدر masdar, 'the source whence the different forms of the verb originate').
- 10° The Deverbal Nouns, as the Noun of Agency (الشم فاعل isme fā'il), the Perfect, or Passive Participle (الشم مفعول or الشم مفعول أسم ماليي isme hāliya, 'the noun of state or circumstance' of the subject or object).

Under the term Particles are comprised—1° Adverbs; 2° Prepositions (حُرُوف جر hurūfe jarr, 'particles of attraction'); 3° Conjunctions (احْرُوف عطف الستراة 'alf, 'conjunctive particles,' or المستراة shart, 'conditional particles,' etc.); 4° Interjections (احْرُوف نِدا hurūfe nida, 'particles of calling').

I. THE ARTICLE.

23. It will be perceived from the above classification that the Article finds no place among the parts of speech in Urdū. The context alone can determine whether a noun is definite or indefinite. The force of the definite article is, however, often conveyed by the demonstrative pronouns and yeh, 'this,' and ', woh, 'that'; and that of the

¹ There is no special name for an adverb in Utdū; it is termed تغيي tamiz, 'the specification,' فطرف zarf, 'the vessel, or that in which the act is done,' or نغيي nafī, 'the particle of negation,' according to the sense in which it is used.

indefinite article by the numeral ایک ck, 'one,' or by the indefinite pronoun کوئی $ko'\bar{\imath}$, 'some.' A fuller notice of this will be found in the Syntax. •

II. THE SUBSTANTIVE (إِنْسُم).

- 1. Gender (جِنْس jins).
- 24. In respect of gender, Urdū nouns are divisible into two classes: 1) those which are masculine (مُدِيِّنُ muzakkar); 2) those which are feminine (مُدِيِّنُ mu'annas).
- Rem. Most nouns are masculine or feminine merely by usage (معاعي samā'ī); the gender of a large number, however, is based on rule (فيانيي kiyāsī): it is with these chiefly that we have to deal
- 25. That a noun is of the masculine or feminine gender may be ascertained either: 1) from its signification; or 2) from its form.
- 26. All common nours and proper names that denote males are masculine by signification, and those that denote females are feminine: e.g. شوخر bāp, 'father,' أوعار bāp, 'father,' shauhar, 'husband,' إوعار lohār, 'blacksmith,' موجن Mohan, are masculine; and مان mān, 'mother,' بأو jorū, 'wife,' يوجنو chhochho, 'nurse,' بأو Bannū, are feminine by signification.

Rem. There is one exception even to this rule. The word فبيله kabīla, 'family,' 'tribe,' is used cuphemistically to signify wife, and treated as a masculine; and the masculine terms خاندان khūndān, 'family,' خاندان gharāna, 'household,' گبر کے آذمبان ghar ke ūdmiyān. 'people of the house,' are still more commonly used in the sense of 'wite'

- 27. Masculine by form are:
- 1). Hindī nouns ending in $1 \bar{a}$, as \bar{v} ī $\bar{a}t\bar{a}$, 'flour,' المجرة gharā, 'an earthen vessel,' المجرة hīrā, 'diamond.'
- 2). Nouns ending in بالله بالله من or o, and especially those ending in $\bar{a}'o$: e.y. الله بالله (pahlā, 'potato,' بالله بال

Rem. Hindī and Arabic words furnish a few exceptions, as بانو bala, 'sand,' وهرو $d\bar{a}r\bar{u}$, 'liquor,' وهرو $roh\bar{u}$, 'a kind of fish,' وهرو hajo, 'satire,' and perhaps one or two more. The chief exceptions are Persian words, as ابرو $ahr\bar{u}$, 'eyebrow,' آبرو $\bar{u}hr\bar{u}$, 'honour,' آبرو $\bar{u}rz\bar{u}$, 'wish,' $h\bar{u}$ or $h\bar{u}$, 'smell,' $h\bar{u}$ or $h\bar{u}$, 'a pair of scales,' مراز $ha\bar{u}$, 'medicine,' habit,' as stream,' habit,' and habit,' and habit, 'habit,' and habit,' and habit, 'habit,' and habit, 'habit,' and habit, 'habit,' and habit, 'habit,' 'habit,'

3). Nouns ending in s = a: e.g. بنّده banda, 'a slave,' parda, 'a curtain,' فقته gussa, 'anger,' برّده ķissa, 'a tale.'

Rem. a. بننسه banafsha, 'a violet,' تُوبه 'tuba, 'repentance,' دفّعه dafa, 'time,' 'a class,' صرّفه sarfa, 'expenditure,' فاخّنه fākhta, 'a

¹ I use the term *Hindī* advisedly; for Sanskrit, not having been a spoken language when Urdū sprung into existence, could only have furnished words to it through the Hindī.

² Words like mansā, dayā, jachā, kirpā, sohhā, etc., belong, not to Uīdū, but to Hindī. Such words were commonly used by the older writers, but are rarely found in modern authors, and even the older writers generally used them under peculiar circumstances, just as an English novelist, the scene of whose novel is laid in Cornwall, for example, might introduce something of the Cornish dialect into his work.

- dove,' هنا القاه القاه
- Rem. I Final s (masculine) is frequently changed into \, and vice versa: e.g. مجال rāja, for الجال rājā, 'a king;' قراء āgra, for گرا Agra, 'Agra'
- 4). All nouns terminating in the syllable بن pan: e.g. أوبن pan: e.g. كميتوني kamīnapan, 'meanness,' لوبن kamīnapan, 'meanness,' 'childhood.' Such words are all abstract substantives.
- 5). Arabic verbal nouns of the measure إِنْعَالِ if al, in which the two alifs (the first and fourth letters) are servile and constant: e.g. إِثْبَال 'ĕhsān, 'a kindness,' إِثْبَال 'ġikbāl, 'good fortune,' أَوْبَال 'krār, 'avowal,' إِثْكَار 'inkār, 'denial.'
- Rem. The few exceptions are إِذِبَار jjlās, 'a sitting,' إِذِبَار idbār, 'turning back,' إِذِبَار islāḥ, 'correction,' إِذَاكُ ikrāḥ, 'aversion,' إِنَّالَ ilḥāḥ, 'solicitation,' إِذِرَاك jimāā, 'assisting,' إِذِرَاك īrād, 'adducing,' and a few more words that end in ت t or l—ā, which are common feminine terminations in Arabic nouns.
- 6). Arabic verbal nouns of the measure تَغُغُّ tafu"ul, in which the first letter (ت t) is servile and characteristic, and the third is marked with tashdīd: e.g. تردُّد takabbur, 'haughtiness.'
- Rem. The exceptions are تُوَثِّو tawajjuh, 'regard,' تَوَثُّو tawazzū, 'performing ablution before prayer,' تَمنَّا tawakku', 'expectation,' 'contamannā, 'wish,' and all nouns ending in يَ تَه تَسَلِّي tasallī, 'consolation,' تَسَلِّي tarakkī, 'advancement.'
- 7). Arabic verbal nouns of the measure \vec{i} tafā al, in which the first and third letters are servile and constant:

e.g. تفارُت tadāruk, 'calling to account,' تفارُت tufāwut, 'difference.'

Rem. توانُّے tawāṣu', 'civility,' is an exception; so also are all nouns ending in ج بي taḥāshī, 'exception.'

- 8). All Arabic verbal nouns of the measure إِنْعِعَالِ infial, in which the first, second, and fifth letters are servile and constant: e.g. اِنْصَال 'insirām, 'ending,' 'ceasing,' اِنْصَال 'infiṣāl, 'decision.'
- 9). Arabic verbal nouns of the measure النَّعَالُ الْنَعَالُ ikhtisār, 'abridgment,' النَّعَالُ ikhtisār, 'abridgment,' التماس 'petition.'
- 10). Arabic verbal nouns of the measure المتنافل istiffal, in which the first three letters are servile and characteristic, and the sixth letter also is servile: e.y. المتعال istigfār, 'begging forgiveness,' المتعمال istigfār, 'use.'

Rem. The exceptions are اَسْتَعْداد isti 'dād, 'capacity,' اسْتُمْداد 'istikrāh, 'aversion,' اِسْتَمْداد 'stimdād, 'begging help,' اِسْتَمْداد istid'ā, 'supplication,' اِسْتِرْضا 'istirṣā, 'seeking to please.'

11). Arabic nouns of place and time of the measures مَعْعَلُ maf'al and سَعْعًلُ maf'il, in which the first letter is characteristic: e.g. مصّدر masdar, 'the source' (of any thing), مسكلي maskan, 'habitation,' مكلي maskan مشكلي

makūn, 'halting, or dwelling place,' مشرق mashrik, 'rising place' (of the sun), مغرب magrib, 'setting place' (of the sun).

Rem. The principal exceptions are: مجال majūl, 'scope,' 'power,' mahshar, 'a place of gathering,' عفر mahshar, 'royal presence,' هخش mahshar, 'a place of meeting,' سخيل "mahsha, 'a place of sitting,' . مسجد masjid, 'a mosque,' منزل "manzil, 'a halting place.'

12). Arabie nomina instrumenti of the measure منَّعٰن mif'al, in which the first letter is characteristic, e.g. مِنْبر mimbar, 'a pulpit,' وحَسَنْلُ miskal, 'a furbishing instrument.'

Rem. is minkhar, 'a nostril,' is perhaps the only exception.

- 28. Feminine by form are:
- 1). Arabic nouns ending in \bar{a} : e.g. $bak\bar{a}$, 'duration,' $bal\bar{a}$, 'evil'; and all Hindī diminutives ending in $\bar{a} = iy\bar{a}$, as $j = chiry\bar{a}$, 'a bird,' $j = chiry\bar{a}$, 'a pimple.'

Rem. Not a few Arabic nouns ending in \dot{a} are masculine, but those that are feminine are far more numerous.

2). Arabic nouns ending in ت t: c.g. المنظقة ulfat, 'familiarity,' عِزَت 'izzat, 'honour;' as also l'ersian abstract nouns formed by dropping the final of the Infinitive: c.g. وفت raft (from رفت) 'going,' منظق yuft (from رفت), 'speaking.'

Rem. The exceptions in the first case are very few: e.g. يَبُوت subūt, 'confirmation,' شربت sharbat, 'a drink,' وقت 'sharbat, 'a drink,' time,' خلفت 'sharbat, 'a robe, wakt, 'time,' خلفت 'khil'at, 'a robe of honour,' يافوت 'yūkūt, 'a ruby,' and perhaps a few more. The rule does not apply to Hindi nouns, nor indeed to any other Persian nouns than the class mentioned.

3). All nouns terminating in the syllable size half or

رت wat, preceded by the long vowel ā: e.g. گنبراهت ghabrāhat, 'perturbation,' بناوت banāwat, 'invention,' 'fabrication.'

Rem. The affixes $\bar{a}hat$ and $\bar{a}wat$ help to form a large class of abstract substantives. In the Dakhini dialect these affixes take the form $\bar{a}t$:

e.g. \mathcal{C}_{a} $\mathcal{C$

4). Persian nouns (chiefly, if not all, abstract substantives) ending in the syllable أنايش ish; as دانيش dānish, 'wisdom,' ناليش nālish, 'complaint.'

Rem. بالِش bālish, 'a pillow,' is perhaps the solitary exception. It may here be observed that sh, simply, is not a feminine termination in Urdū.

• 5) Nouns ending in روثتي i: e.g. روثتي rotī, 'bread,' مراجى surāḥī, 'a gugglet,' مُراجِي huḍḍī, 'a bone.'

Rem. راني $p\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$, 'water,' رجي $\bar{\jmath}\bar{\imath}$, 'life,' دجي $dah\bar{\imath}$, 'curdled milk,' $gh\bar{\imath}$, 'elarified butter,' موتي $mot\bar{\imath}$, 'a pearl,' ما $h\bar{a}th\bar{\imath}$, 'an elephant,' and a few other words are exceptions.' Relative adjectives, as خزائجي $dhob\bar{\imath}$, 'a washerman,' خزائجي $hazanch\bar{\imath}$, 'a treasurer,' are of course masculine by signification

6). Abstract nouns formed by dropping the characteristic

These words are masculine or neuter in Sanskrit, and, as a general rule, such words are masculine in Hindi. There are numerous exceptions though . e.g. \$\tilde{a}y\$, 'fire,' \$\tilde{c}ir\tilde{a}\$, 'star,' \$bh\tilde{a}ph\$, 'steam,' 'vapour' (=S. \$rashpa\$, m.), \$deh\$, 'the body,' etc. Mr. Dowson, however (Urd\tilde{u}\$ Grammar, p. 22), writes as though the rule were of universal application, and applied equally to words derived from the Arabic also. He says, "Sanskrit and Arabic scholars should bear in mind that words borrowed from those languages retain 'their original gender; masculines and neuters being masculine, and feminines remain (\$sic\$) feminine in Hind\tilde{u}\$stani." We were not aware before of there being a neuter gender in Arabic; and as regards the derivatives from that language we can adduce examples by the score in which Arabic feminines have been changed to masculines in Urd\tilde{u}\$ and \$vex vers\tilde{u}\$; here are a few \$uf^*u\$, 'vipex,' jahannam, 'hell,' \$khamr, 'wine,' shams, 'the sun,' \$sahr\tilde{u}\$, 'dosert,' 'a\tilde{u}\tilde{u}\$, 'staff,' \$naf\tilde{v}\$, 'soul,' etc., not to speak of the long list of verbal nouns in which Urd\tilde{u}\$ changes the feminine termination \$\tilde{v}\$ of the Arabic into the masculine \$\tilde{v}\$— \$a\$; as \$mah\tilde{u}\$aca \$a\$, 'idnom.'

syllable نا $n\bar{a}$ of the Infinitive; e.g. مازّنا $m\bar{a}rn\bar{a}$), 'beating,' أَلَّذُ $l\bar{u}t$ (from أَلَّذُنا $l\bar{u}tn\bar{a}$), 'plunder,' وَلَّذَا $chh\bar{a}p$, 'printing,' 'impression,' جهاب samajh, 'understanding,' 'ragar, 'rubbing,' 'friction.'

Rem. The exceptions are کیمل khel, 'play,' نوچ noch, 'scratch,' الهای المهاد الهای المهاد الهای المهاد الهای المهاد الهای اله

7). Arabie verbal nouns of the measure نَعْمِل tuf'īl, in which the first and fourth letters are servile and characteristic; e.g. تَسْكِبِي turgīb, 'exciting desire,' تَسْكِبِي turgīb, 'execution' (of an order).

Rem. تَعْوِيدُ ta'wīz, 'an amulet,' is perhaps the only exception.

- 8). Arabic nomina instrumenti of the measure مِغْعَال mif'āl, in which the first and fourth letters are servile and characteristic: c.g. مِغْرَاف miḥrāz, 'scissors,' مِنْكَار minhār, 'a bird's beak,' وَبِنْكَار mīzār, 'a balance.'
- Rem. a. The exceptions are منشار minshār, 'a hand-saw,' مسمار mismār, 'a peg or nail,' معيار mi'yār, 'a touchstone,' 'an assay-balance.'
- Rem. c. The words بُنْبُلُ hulbul, أَعْرَ بَالَهُ الْبَالُ fikr, 'thought,' are masculine or feminine, but the latter is generally considered correct in Northern India.
- Rem. d. (ieneric nouns (أَسْمَ جِنْسُ jins) are either masculine or feminine, and apply equally to both sexes; e.g. چيل chīl, 'a kite,' is feminine; هرن haran or hiran, is masculine. In some cases, however, the terminations ā, ī are added to such nouns to distinguish the sex: e.g. آذوبي harnā, 'a buck,' هرنا harnā, 'a doe.' The word

'a human being,' though properly a generic noun, and hence applicable to females as well as males, is rarely treated as a feminine by Mohammadans; where a Hindā might say اَجَبِي اَدْمِي عَوْرَت achchhā ādmā, 'a good woman,' a Musalmān would say, عَوْرَت achchhā 'aurat.

29. The gender of compounds is generally determined by the latter part of the compound: e.g. هُمُارُكَاهُ shikār-gāh, 'a hunting-ground,' هُمُرُنِناهُ shahr-panāh, 'a wall of defence round a town,' are feminine, because the words عُلَمُ gāh and مُناهُ panāh are feminine. There are exceptions however; as مُناهُ pā'e-gāh, 'dignity,' وَبُمُنَاهُ kibla-gāh, 'an object of reverence,' 'father,' نُوشُدَارُو nosh-dārā, 'medicine,' 'a draught.'

FORMATION OF FEMININES FROM MASCULINES.

30. The most common termination used to form feminines from masculines is \bar{i} . If the masculine end in a consonant, this termination is merely added to it; as

براهمني brāhman, 'a Brāhman, براهمني brāhmanī, 'a Brāhman woman.' مراهمني ahīr, 'a cowherd,' اهيري ahīrī, 'a woman of the Alıīr caste.'
روي paṭhān, 'a Pathān,' پتياني paṭhānī, 'a woman of the Paṭhān

If the masculine end in \bar{a} or a(s-), these terminations are changed into \bar{i} for the feminine: e.g.

از کا امرازی المرازی المرازی

- 31. Other common feminine affixes are $0 \neq an$ or in, $n\bar{n}$, and $i \neq \bar{n}n\bar{n}$, which are all used in the ease of rational beings (chiefly with nouns denoting caste, trade, occupation, etc.), and the last two in the ease of irrational animals also. In the application of these the following rules are to be observed:
- 1). If the masculine end in a consonant, the affixes are merely added: e.g.

2). If the masculine end in a long vowel preceded by any consonant except ωy , the vowel is generally dropped before the affixes are added, and a long ma^iruf vowel in a monosyllabic masculine noun shortened: e.g.

لَمْ dulhā, 'a bridegroom,' مريتها barethā, 'a washerman,' لم المعتاد barethā, 'a washerman,' لمنه المعتاد barethan, 'a washerwoman.' المنه المعتاد ا

Rem. In the word $mum\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$ (for $mam\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$) the influence of final \bar{u} in the masculine is sufficient to change the first vowel from a into u. In some instances final \bar{u} of the masculine is not dropped in the feminine:

e.g. \bar{u} \bar{u}

Rem. The above affixes are all derived from the Sanskrit affix आनी anī, (e.g. इन्हाणी indrāṇī, 'the wife of Indra'). Of the two forms an and in of the first affix, the latter is more commonly used in towns, and by Musalmāns. This affix is also added to Arabic nouns to form the names of women; e.g. المين Amīran, المين Naṣīban, which are generally, though incorrectly, written المين Naṣīban.

32. Other masculines and feminines are:

راجا
$$r\bar{a}j\bar{a}$$
, 'a king,' واني $r\bar{a}n\bar{i}$, 'queen.' وانيك $n\bar{a}yak$, 'a youth,' etc. نايك $n\bar{a}'ik\bar{a}$, 'a damsel,' etc. نايك $n\bar{a}'ik\bar{a}$, 'brother,' نايك $bahin$, 'sister.' $bahin$, 'sister.' خائو beg , 'lord,' 'prince,' $begam$, 'lady,' 'princess.' خانم $kh\bar{a}n$, 'lord,' 'prince,' خانم $kh\bar{a}n$, 'lord,' 'princess.'

The first of these is derived, through the Prākrit, from the Sanskrit $r\bar{u}jn\bar{\iota}$, by elision of j; the second is taken intact from the Sanskrit, and is perhaps the only example in Urdū of a feminine so formed; the third is derived through the Prākrit from the Sanskrit bhugin $\bar{\iota}$; the fourth is the regular Arabic feminine of $\underline{kh}\bar{u}l$, which is also in use, and of which $\underline{kh}\bar{u}l\bar{u}$ is probably a corruption; the two last are borrowed (through the Persian) from the Turkish.

33. In many cases distinct words are used for the feminine: e.g.

And the distinction of sex is occasionally indicated, as in Persian, by means of the words نر ماده nar, 'male,' ماده māda, 'female': e.g. شير نر sherĕ nar, or نر شير nar sher, 'a male tiger,' مبر ماده sherĕ māda, 'a female tiger.'

Rem. The formation of Arabic feminines will be treated separately in the section on Persian and Arabic constructions.

- 34. Nouns have two numbers, the singular ($\sqrt[4]{\omega}$), wāhid), and the plural ($\sqrt[4]{\omega}$). The nominative singular has no case-sign, but is always identical with the crude form of the noun. The formation of the plural depends on the termination and gender of the singular. The following rules may be laid down respecting it.
- 1). Masculines ending in a consonant, or in one of the long vowels, \bar{u} or o, $\bar{u} = \bar{i}$, as also a few Hindī masculines ending in $1-\bar{u}$, that are proper names, or nouns denoting relationship, titles, professions, etc., and Persian and

Arabic words with the same termination, remain unchanged in the nominative plural: e.g.

Rem. A few Arabic words ending in \bar{a} are exceptions: e.g. in \bar{a} , $m\bar{a}jar\bar{a}$, which is treated like Hindi masculines ending in \bar{a} , and has for its nom. plural \bar{a} , \bar{a} ,

- 2). Masculines ending in $1 \bar{a}$ (with the exceptions noticed above), or s a (which is interchangeable with \bar{a}), form the nominative plural by changing \bar{a} , or a, into e.g. e.g.
- Rem. b. The plural termination e corresponds to the plural termination e of the Prākrit, vide Lassen's Instit. Ling. Prāk. p. 430.
- 3). Feminines ending in $z = \overline{i}$ form the nominative plural by adding $1 \overline{a}n$ to the singular, the fatha of the

affix changing the letter of prolongation ω into the consonant y: e.g.

Rem. The termination \bar{an} corresponds to the Prākrit plural increment o, which is changed to \bar{a} and nasalized.

4). Feminines ending in any letter except \overline{i} form the nominative plural by adding the termination \underline{i} \underline{e} \underline{n} to the singular; as

If the singular end in one of the long vowels $1 - \bar{a}$, $-\bar{u}$ or o, hamza is employed to enounce the initial vowel of the termination: e.g.

If, however, the singular end in s - a, or a - c, these terminations are dropped before the plural affix is added: e.g.

Rem. a. The word jorā has for its plural جوروال jorā'ān as well as the regular jorā'en; and a few other words ending in ā or o perhaps never occur in the plural: e.g. بالو bālā, 'sand,' دارُو dārā, 'liquor,' دارُو kā, 'a street,' عُنو sā, 'direction,' هُجُو hajo, 'satire,' عُنو tarāsā, 'a pair of scales.' As exceptions to the rule we may note the class of

feminine diminutives which end in الله نابة $iy\bar{a}$; as نابغة $chiriy\bar{a}$, 'a bird,' $burhiy\bar{a}$, 'an old woman,' $phuriy\bar{a}$, 'a pimple;' these take the plural forms of the feminines from which they are derived: o.g. $burhiy\bar{a}\dot{n}$ (= pl. of $burh\bar{\imath}$).

Rem. b. The plural affix $e\dot{n}$, like the preceding affix $\ddot{a}\dot{n}$, corresponds to the Prākrit affix o, which is frequently changed to e in the Prākrit dialects.

Rom. c. Dissyllables with a short vowel in the first syllable, and fatha (a) in the second, generally drop the fatha when, in the course of inflection or derivation, a syllable is added beginning with a vowel:
e.g. jaghen, plural of jagah, 'a place.'

3. Declension (تَصْرِيف taṣrīf, or گردار gardān).

- 35. Strictly speaking there is no such thing as declension in Urdū; the cases are formed by means of certain adverbs (called حُرُونِ معْنوي hurūfě maˈnawī, 'significant particles,' by the native grammarians), which are placed after the noun, and hence termed postpositions.
- 36. The cases (حالت hūlūt), as generally given in Hindūstānī grammars, are eight in number; namely, the Nominative, Agent, Genitive, Dative, Accusative, Ablative, Locative, and Vocative. In reality, however, there are but two cases; viz. the crude form or Nominative, and the oblique form, or that to which the postpositions are added, and which Dr. Caldwell happily terms the Formative.

Rem. Most Urdū grammarians, ignoring all grammatical forms save those of the Arabic and Persian, recognise but three cases; viz. the Nominative and Agent (حالت فاعِلي ḥālatē fā'ilī, or خاعل إضافت ḥālatē izāfat), and the Dative-Accusative مفعُولي hālatē maf'ūlī, or مفعُولي maf'ūl bih). The Ab-

lative and Locative they term مجرور و جار majrūr o jūrr, 'the attracted and the attracting' (i.e. the object attracted and the preposition attracting it); and the Vocative they call ندا و منادیل nidā o munādā, 'the calling and the called.'

37. The postpositions which are used in lieu of case-endings are:

```
ine, 'by,' for the Agent, sing. and plural. لا ka, 'of,' etc. ,, Genitive, ,,

ko, 'to,' 'for,' ,, Dative, ,,

se, 'from,' 'with,' 'by,' ,, Ablative, ,,

men, par or pa, 'in,' 'on,' ,, Locative ,,
```

38. The singular nominative, as we have already observed, has no postposition added to it, but is always identical with the crude form of the noun.

The postposition of the agent case is derived from the affix na^1 of the Sanskrit instrumental case (singular), to which it was no doubt at first understood to correspond in use and signification; but according to the conception of those who now employ it, it is nothing more than a mere sign to distinguish the subject or agent of a transitive verb in the tenses formed with the passive participle ($\S\S$ 183, 188).

The genitive case is simply an adjective, formed by means of an adjective affix (see § 42).

The accusative case, strictly speaking, does not exist in Hindī and Urdū; its place is supplied by the nominative (which we shall call the direct object), or by the dative, in which case the postposition to is not to be translated into English.

The vocative case takes no postposition, but a variety of interjections may be prefixed to it.

¹ For the derivation of the other postpositions see the section on Prepositions and Postpositions.

- Rem. a. The force of the dative is occasionally expressed by the postpositions تأيين ta'īn, 'to,' and الله المؤدو المؤدو
- ' Rem. b. Two postpositions (generally those of the ablative and locative cases) are frequently used together: e.g. گبر میں سے 'ghar-men-se, 'from within the house,' آبيل پر سے 'bail-par-se,' from upon the ox.' In such cases the first is regarded by some of the native grammarians as a noun governing the preceding noun in the genitive.
- 39. The form assumed by a noun before it takes a post-position after it (whether that postposition be expressed or understood) is generally termed the *oblique form*. We prefer calling it, with Dr. Caldwell, the *Formative*. In constructing the Formative the following cases arise:

- 2). If the nom. sing. end in اخة a or عند a (§ 33, 2), the Formatives are obtained by changing these letters into جد و for the singular, and ب ص on for the plural: e.g. nom. sing. الله على الله على إلى ghorā, 'a horse,' singular Formative على ghore, plural Formative الله على ghoron; nom. sing. على gussa, 'anger,' sing. Form. على gussa, 'anger,' sing. Form. على gussa, but nouns which are the names of living beings do not inflect: e.g. كيسيتا Ghasītā, Formative كيسيتا
- Rem. a. According to some native grammarians no proper name should be inflected; hence we find in the Kawā'idĕ Urdū, Part III., جمنا کے کہنے سے وُہ دریا سمجیا جائیگا جو دِهّلی منْبَرا آگرہ کے نِیچے بِمنا کے کہنے سے وُہ دریا سمجیا جائیگا جو دِهّلی منْبرا آگرہ کے نِیچے بِمنا کے کہنے سے وُہ دریا سمجیا جائیگا جو دِهّلی منْبرا آگرہ کے نِیچے بَمنا کے کہنے سے وُہ دریا سمجیا جائیگا جو دِهّلی منْبرا آگرہ کے نِیچے بَمنا کے کہنے سے وُہ دریا سمجیا جائیگا جو دِهّلی منْبرا آگرہ کے نِیچے بَمنا کے کہنے سے وُہ دریا سمجیا جائیگا جو دِهّلی منْبرا آگرہ کے نِیچے بَمنا کے کہنے سے وُہ دریا سمجیا جائیگا جو دِهْلی منْبرا آگرہ کے نِیچے بِمنا کے کہنے سے وُہ دریا سمجیا جائیگا جو دِهْلی منْبرا آگرہ کے نِیچے بِیکستا کہ بیتا کی دریا سمجیا جائیگا جو دِهْلی منْبرا آگرہ کے نِیچے بِیکستا کے کہنے سے وُہ دریا سمجیا جائیگا جو دِهْلی منْبرا آگرہ کے نِیچے بِیکستا کے دریا سمجیا جائیگا جو دِهْلی منْبرا آگرہ کے نِیچے بِیکستا کے دریا سمجیا جائیگا جو دِهْلی منْبرا آگرہ کے نِیچے بِیکستا کے دریا سمجیا جائیگا جو دِهْلی منْبرا آگرہ کے نیاح
- Rem. b. The Formative is originally, as Dr. Trumpp suggests (Sindhī Gram. p. 123), the Prākrit Genitive. This is not very clear in the singular, but the termination $o\dot{n}$ of the Formative plural is evidently the termination $\bar{a}na$ or $\bar{u}na$ of the Prākrit genitive plural, and in the case of the pronouns the identity is unmistakeable.
 - 40. All nouns then may be arranged in two classes or declensions, corresponding to the two forms of the Formative.

THE FIRST DECLENSION.

41. The first declension comprises all feminines, and masculines terminating in any letter except (original) s = a; those ending in $l = \bar{a}$, however, are Persian or Arabic words, or Hindī nouns of relationship, etc. (§ 33, 1); e.g.

1). A ghar, 'a house' (masc.).

Nom.

ghar, 'a house.'

A ghar, 'houses.'

Formative sghar.

gharon.

Agent. گير نے ghar-ne, 'by a house.' گير نے gharon-ne, 'by houses.'

Gen. کیر کا ghar-kā, 'of a house.' کیر کا gharon-kā, 'of houses.'

Dat. گهر کو ghar-ko, 'to a house.' گهر کو gharon-ko, 'to houses.'

 $\left\{\begin{array}{ll}ghar,\\ghar,ko,\end{array}\right\}$ 'a house.' څهر ghar,ko, 'houses.' gharoi-ko,

Abl. by, a house.'

"gharon-se, 'from houses.' گهر سے ghar-se, 'from houses.'

I.oc. گهروس میس ghar-men, -par, 'in, گهروس میس gharon-men, 'in houses.'

Voc. أي گهرو ai ghar, 'O house.' أي گهر ai gharo, 'O houses.'

2). 😂 chachā, 'a paternal uncle.'

Les chachā, 'an uncle.'

L≈ chachā, 'uncles.'

Form. \sim chachā.

chacha'on.

Agent چچانے chachū-ne, 'by an uncle.' چچاؤں نے chachū'on-ne, 'by uncles.' Gen. چچاؤں کا 'chachā-kā, 'of an uncle.' چچاؤں کا 'chachā'on kā, 'of uncles.' etc. etc. etc.

Rem. Like chachā are declined such Hindī nouns as اجا, rājā, 'a king,' W lālā, 'a master,' as also Persian and Arabic nouns (masc.); e.g. دريا daryā, 'a river,' استحر ṣaḥrā, 'a desert.'

3.) موتر, 'a pearl' (masc.).

Nom. موتى motī, 'a pearl.' موتى motī, 'pearls.'

Form. موتيون motiyon or motivon.

Gen. موتيون کا motī-kā, 'of pearls.'

4). sichchhū, 'a scorpion' (masc.).

Nom. پَجُهُو bichchhū, 'a scorpions.' pion.'

Form. چُهُوو bichchhū. چُهُوو bichchhū. چُهُوو bichchhū.

Agent ﷺ bichchhū-ne, 'by a بَحْهُورُن نِي bichchhū-ne, 'by scor-scorpion.' pions.

Rom. Final \bar{u} is occasionally shortened before the termination on of the Formative plural is added; as مَاهُ اللّٰهُ اللّٰ اللّٰ اللّٰهُ اللّٰهُ

5). بت <i>āt</i> , '	night' (fem.).
Nom. رات rāt, 'night.'	rāten, 'nights.'
Form. رات rat.	راتوس rāton.
Gen. رات کا rāt-kā, 'of night.' etc. etc. etc.	اتوں کا rāton-kā, 'of nights.' etc. etc. etc.
6). أي dawā, 'n	nedicine' (fem.).
Nom. ان dawā, 'medicine.'	".dawā'en, 'medicines دوائي
Form. Lava.	• ما dawā'on.
Agent عرانے dawā-ne, 'by the medicine.'	cines.' etc. etc.

7). بُو bo or $b\bar{u}$, 'smell' (fem.).

Nom. بوئي bo or bū, 'smell.' بوئي bo'en or bū'en, 'smells.' Form. بوؤس bo or bū.

Rem. The few feminines ending in e and a (s = 0) not only drop those letters in the nominative plural, but also in the Formative plural: e.g. e.g. $g\ddot{a}$ 'on, from \ddot{a} \ddot{b} \ddot{a} \ddot{b} \ddot{b} \ddot{a} \ddot{b} $\ddot{b$

8). لڙکي *laṛkī*, 'a girl.'

Nom. لَوْكِيَال laṛkī, 'a girl.' لَوْكِيَال laṛkiyān, 'girls.' Form. لَوْكِيوں laṛkiyon or laṛkī'on.

Rem. a. Feminine diminutives, such as پُوْتِيا chiriya, 'a bird,' چَـٰتِيا phuriyā, 'a small boil,' drop the final ā in the Formative plural (as in the plur. nom.), and so have the same plural forms as feminines ending in ā: e.g. nom. pl. چَـٰتِيو chiriyān, 'birds,' Form. pl. چَـٰتِيو chiriyān, 'birds,' Form. pl.

Rem. b. A noun terminating in nasal n is declined in the singular just as if the nasal were not present, but the nasal is dropped in the plural.

THE SECOND DECLENSION.

42. The second declension comprises all masculine (Hindī) nouns ending in $1 - \bar{u}$ (except such as denote relationship, titles, professions, etc.) and all masculines ending, in s - a: e.g.

2). پرٌده parda. 'a curtain.'

SINGULAR.

Nom. پرده parda, 'a curtain.' پرده parde, 'curtains.' Form. پردوي parde پردوي pardoi.

Rem. a. According to the present custom of writing such words as end in s = a, the Formative singular is identical, in writing, with the nominative: e.g. s = a, pronounced pards.

Rem. b. A few mase. Arabic nouns also, as أجرا mājarā, 'incident,' 'circumstance,' نشا nashā, 'intoxication,' belong to this declension.

Rem. c. Nasal n at the end of words is retained in the singular, as also in the nominative plural, but dropped in the Formative plural: e.g. nom. sing. بنیال baniyān, 'a merchant,' Form. sing. بنیال baniyen, nom. pl. بنیوں baniyen, Form. pl. بنیوں baniyen.

Rem. d. Words ending in نه ya, as غياني pāya, 'the foot or leg' (of a thing), خوايه kirāya, 'hire,' 'rent,' may follow the general rule, or change y into hamza in the Form. sing.: e.g. پائيس pāye or پائيس pā'e, خوايس kirā'e. In the plural, however, the rule is generally observed. Similarly from رُوپئي rūpaya are formed رُوپئي rūpa'e or رُوپئي rūpai; and from رُوپئي rupaya the forms رُوپئي rupai. It is a mistake to derive these forms from رُوپئي rūpiya, and call them irregular.

THE GENITIVE (مُضاف إليه).

43. The Genitive, as has been remarked before, is formed by means of an adjective affix ($\forall k\bar{a} = \Pr\bar{a}$ krit $\Rightarrow ko = \text{Sanskrit} \Rightarrow ka$), and is a real adjective, changing its termination so as to agree with its governing noun (the \hat{a}), just as the Hindī adjective ending in \hat{a} does.

Rem. The Persian genitive construction is also used in Urdū, and it is a noteworthy fact that the relation of the governed to the governing

noun is expressed in the same manner as that of a noun to the adjective qualifying it (see *Persian Constructions*, § 76).

III. THE ADJECTIVE (إِسَّم صِفْت).

- 44. The adjective generally precedes the noun it qualifies, and, unless it end in $1 \bar{a}$, and be derived from the Hindī, is indeclinable: e.g. سفید گبورّا safed ghorā, 'a white horse;' سفید گبورّای safed ghorē, 'a white mare;' سفید گبورّای safed ghore, 'white horses.'
- 45. Adjectives (not Persian or Arabie) which end in $1 \bar{a}$ (the mase termination), are declined in the singular like nouns of the Second Declension, and form the nompl. in the same way; but the Formative pl. is identical with that of the singular. The feminine is formed by changing the termination $1 \bar{a}$, of the mase into $\bar{a} = \bar{a}$, and is not altered for ease or number: e.g.

The genitive is similarly declined: e.g.

Singular.

Nom. گير كي ghar-kā, 'of the house,' گير كي ghar-kī.

'household.'

Form. گير كي ghar-kē.

Plural.

Nom. گير كي ghar-kē.

Porm. گير كي ghar-kē.

Spar-kē.

Plural.

Examples: الجَهِي الدَّمِي الدَّرُولِ الدَّمِي الدَّرُولِ الدَّمِي الدَّرُولِ الدَّمِي المُعْلَمُ الدَّمِي المُعْلَمُ الدَّمِي الدَّمِي الدَّمِي الدَّمِي الدَّمِي الدَّمِي الدَّمِي الدَّمِي الدَّمِي المُعْلَمُ الدَّمِي الدَّمِي المَامِي المَامِي

- Rem. a. One Persian adjective ending in الشر قرب judā, 'separate,' and one Arabic, فُلانا fulānā (for فُلانه), 'certain,' are sīmilarly declined.
- Rem. c. If final ā of an adjective be nasalized, the nasal does not affect its declension, but is retained in all the cases: e.g. بایال هاته فقی bāyān hāth, 'the left hand,' ماته کو bāyen (or bā'en) hāth-ko, 'to the left hand,' بائیس طرف bā'īn taraf, 'the left side.'
- Rem. d. The adjective occasionally follows the noun it qualifies. This is especially the case if the attribute is to be emphasized or brought prominently to notice. In the older writings, marcover, femi-

nine adjectives following the nouns they qualify sometimes take the plural termination of substantives; as راتیس بهاریال rāten bhāriyān, 'heavy or wearisome nights;' کونّهریال بهکت اُونچیال kothriyān bahut ūnchiyān, 'very lofty rooms;' but this construction is now obsolete.

- 46. A few Persian adjectives ending in هَ مَ a are declined like Hindī adjectives ending in ā; but as a rule such adjectives are indeclinable. The following are the most important of those that inflect: بيچاره be-chāra, 'helpless,' 'poor,' ناقع, 'fresh,' حرافزاده harām-zāda, 'base-born,' 'rascally,' بالده dīwāna, 'mad,' 'insane,' مالده sharminda, 'ashamed,' 'bashful,' كمنه sharminda, 'ashamed,' 'bashful,' كمنه mānda, 'tired,' 'indisposed,' عاديده nā-dīda, 'unseen,' ناكاره 'indisposed,' ناديده 'nā-dīda, 'unseen,' 'useless.'
- Rem. a. To these some grammarians add عَمْدُهُ نُسْطَمَّمُ, 'exalted,' فَمُدُهُ يُلُ سُلُكُ عُمْدُهُ عُلَالًا 'gak-sāla, 'annual,' وسالك 'dū-sāla, 'biennial,' etc., but these are not inflected by writers of the present day: e.g. نُمُدِي بات 'umda bāt, 'an excellent matter,' not عُمْدِي بات
- Rem. b. Adjectives, when used as concrete nouns, are declined like nouns: e.g. ilia dānā, 'a wise man,' with dānā'on-se, 'from the wise.'

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

47. Adjectives undergo no change of form to express the comparative and superlative degrees. When two objects are compared, that with which the comparison is made generally takes the form of the ablative, the adjective itself remaining in the positive and following it: e.g. موهن mohan zaid-se barā hai, 'Mohan is bigger than Zaid.' The superlative is, strictly speaking, nothing more than a comparative involving the pronominal adjective

sab, 'all,' (prefixed to the ablative, either expressed or understood) as its complement: e.g. موهن سب لِرِّكُوں سے mohan sab larkon-se achchhā hai, 'Mohan is better than (the best of) all the boys;' منب سے برّا هَي wŏh sab-se barā hui, 'he is bigger than (the biggest of) all.'

Rem. a. The particle signifies the difference between two objects that are compared with each other, and hence its use in forming the comparative degree. It is a remarkable fact that this method of forming the comparative and superlative is borrowed from the Semitic languages. The only trace of the Sanskrit method that exists in Urdū is found in the forms borrowed from the Persian, as bith, 'good,' bith-tar, 'better,' in bith-tar, '

48. An intensive signification is given to an adjective, in either the positive or comparative degree: 1) by repeating it; as اجَها اجها اجها اجها الجها الحالية الحالية

نهايت في الجها منه bahut-hī achchhā, 'exceedingly good'); اور كالا 'nihāyat khūb-sūrat, 'extremely handsome; أور كالا 'aur kālā, 'more black,' and أور بهي كالا aur bhī kālā, 'even, or still, blacker; وياده حسين 'ziyāda hasīn, 'more beautiful,' or 'exceedingly beautiful;' بدرجه بهتر 'ba-darjahā bčhtar, 'by degrees, or many degrees, better,' 'far better;' by degrees, or many degrees, better,' 'far better;' بهتر 'ever so much, or incomparably, better:' 3) by adding to the adjective the termination له عقل اله المقالمة عقر 'very black,' or 'blackish,' بهتر bahut-sā, 'a large quantity,' 'very much'; تبورًا سا 'thoṛā-sā, 'just a little,' 'a very little.'

- 50. Whether the adjunct L be employed as an intensive, or as an adjective of similitude, it is declinable like Hindī adjectives ending in $1 \bar{a}$, and the noun to which it is added inflects just as it would do without it: e.g. بهُت سے گھوڙي bahut-se ghore, 'a great many horses;' كالِي سِي گھوڙياں 'kātī-sī ghoriyān, 'very black (or blackish) mares.'

Rem. L sā or L sān, 'like,' 'resembling,' is most probably the

¹ The use of $s\bar{a}$ after the genitive appears to have perplexed the grammarians greatly. The matter belongs properly to Syntar; but we may observe here, that the construction in such cases is precisely similar to that of the English; the $muz\bar{a}f$, or noun which governs the genitive, is invariably understood, and it is to this that the adjunct of similitude is attached: e.g. in the phrase sher-k\bar{i}-s\bar{i}\bar{g}\bar{w}rat, the word \bar{g}\bar{w}rat (to which the adjunct $s\bar{a}$ pertains) is understood after ki, just as, in the English equivalent, 'a form like \alpha tiger's, 'the word 'form' is understood after 'tiger's' (Cf. also \(\frac{5}{3} 362).

Prākrit form of the Sanskrit समान like; whereas the intensive particle L is derived from the Sanskrit NR śas, 'fold,' etc.

IV. NUMERAL ADJECTIVES (اِسْمِ عدد).

51. The Urdū numerals are the same as those of the Hindī, and are derived from the Sanskrit through the medium of the Prākrit.¹ Like other adjectives they

In deriving its words from the Prākrit, the Hindī generally drops fine I short vowels, endes one or both the letters of conjuncts, and lengthens medial short vowels, especially where a conjunct, or one of the consonants, is chied. Thus we have —One, Sanskrit ela, Prākrit, ella, Hindī elemants, Edwi, P. do, H. do.—Three, S. tri, P. tomi, H. tin:—Four, S. chatur, P. chatlari, H. chār, by chison of the conjunct.—Fere, S. ponichan, P. panicha, H. pānich—Sir, S. shash, P. chha, H. chha (the cerebral sibilant of the Sanskrit being changed in Prākrit into ella occasionally this sibilant is changed into h, very commonly into s, as is also the palatal sibilant s' of the Sanskrit, since Prākrit has no palatal or cerebral sibilant):—Seren, S. saptan, P. satta, H. sāt — Fight, S. ashtan, P. attha, H. āth.—Nim, S. maran, P. man, H. man,—Tin, S. dašan, P. dasa, H. das.

From ten upwards the numbers are formed by prefixing the units to the tens, which, however, previously undergo a change of form teg, the Prākrit dasa is changed, terst to daha, and then to raha, as Eiece, S. chādasan, P. cāraha, H. igārah (not eliding the k of the Sanskrit, but changing it into the soft g, and changing the dephthong of into the short vowel i), whence, by transposition of vowel, giārah, whence gyārah. — Twelve, S. drādasan, P. cāraha, H. bārah: —Thirteen, S. trayodasan, P. terah, H. terah. —Fourteen, S. chatwalasan, P. chandah, H. mandah: —Fefteen, S. panchadasan, P. pangaraha, H. pandrah, for pandarah, by change of conjunct to nd before the liquid r.—Serten, S. shodasan, P. sorah or solah (i), H. sorah or solah —Serenten, S. saptadasan, P. sattaraha, H. satrah for sattarah: —Eighteen, S. ashtadasan, P. attharaha, H. athārah: —Twenty, S. vinšati, P. vīsař, H. bīs.

The numbers 19, 29, 39, etc. are formed by prefixing to the following decades the word un (Sanskrit ūna, 'diminished'), and making certain changes in the initial letters of some of the decades: e.g. the v of the Prākrit $v\bar{\imath}sa\bar{\imath}$, is clided, as, Numteen (i.e. 20 diminished by 1) is $un-\bar{\imath}s$: so also in the other compounds, $ik\bar{\imath}s$, 'twenty-one,' and so on.

Thirty, S. trimsat, P. tīsaa, H. tīs, whence Twenty-nine, untīs.

Forty, S. chatvarinsat, P. chattūrisie (?), H. chūtīs, by elision of the conjunct tt, and change of r to t. In compounds, chūtīs is changed into tātīs, before which the vowels a, i, r of the units are changed to c, $c\bar{n}$, or $ac\bar{n}$. In forty-two and forty-six, $c\bar{n}$ is elided.

Fifty, S. paichāśat, P. pannāsa, H. pachās (which is closer to the Sanskrit than to the Prākrit); whence, Fortu-nine, unchās, the first syllable of pachās being clided. In the numbers 50 to 58, the last syllable is dropped and original n restored; as pachpan. In 51, 52, 54, 57, 58, the p of pan is, for the sake of cuphony, softened into b, and thence into v or w.

From the Sanskrit shashti is derived the Hindi sath, whence un-sath, 'fifty-nine,' iksath, 'sixty-one,' etc.

generally precede the noun, which may be in the singular or plural.

THE CARDINAL NUMBERS.

	FIGURES. NAMES.				FIGURE	ь.	NAMPS
-	ARABIC	DEVA-			ARABIC	DEVA-	
1	1	9	ایک ek.	12	١٢	92	bārah. باره
2	٢	२	.do دو	13	11	93	terah نيره
3	۳	3	tīn.	14	112	98	chon lah. چوده
4	ع	8	chār. چار	15	10	94	پندره panetrale.
5	٥	ų	pānch. پانچ	16	17	9ई	soluh. سولة
6	٦	٤	دئي chha.	17	11	99	satraic. ستره
7	V	e	سات sūt.		10	-	(athārah.
8	۸	E	äļh.	18	17	95	أ إنهارا athārā.
9	9	e	nau.	19	19	90	سانبس أنبس unīs and unnīs.
10	1.	90	سى das.	20	۲۰	२०	بیس $bar{\imath}s$.
11	11	99	j igārah. [گاره) gyārah.	21	۲۱	રવ	ایکیس (انگرنه. انگرنه انگرنه) (انگرنه ا

In sattar, 'seventy,' the p of the Sanskrit saptati is assimilated to t, and final t changed into r; and in the compounds, initial s is, for the sake of cuphony, changed into h; as unhattar, 'sixty-ninc;' ikhattar, 'seventy-one.'

Assī, 'eighty,' is from the Sanskrit $a\bar{s}\bar{t}i$, the final t being clided, and the sibilant doubled. In the compounds, however, the doubling of the sibilant does not take place, while the conjunctive vowel \bar{a} is added to the units; as $un\bar{a}s\bar{i}$, 'eventy-nine;' $ik\bar{a}s\bar{i}$, 'eighty-one;' $naw\bar{a}s\bar{i}$, 'eighty-nine,' instead of $un\bar{a}nane$, as night have been expected.

Nawe, or navere, 'ninety,' is derived from the Sanskrit naveti. In the compounds formed therewith, the conjunctive vowel \bar{a} is added to the units e.g. ikanawe, 'ninety-one.'

The word sau, or sai, 'one hundred,' is derived from the Sanskrit sata, Prakrit sau.

	FIGURES. NAMES.			FIGUR	ES.	NAMES.	
	ARABIC, DEVA-		i.		ARABI	DEVA-	
22	۲۲	२२	بائِيسي bā'īs.	40	۴.	80	چالیس chālīs.
23	۲۳	२३	· تيئِيش te'īs.	41	121	४१	إلىس عناليس إلى الكناليس إلى إلى إلى إلى إلى إلى إلى الما إلى الم
21	112	२४	chaubīs. چَوْبِيس				ا iktālīs. اِكْتَالِيس)
25	10	२५	پچيس pachīs.	42	127	४२	ليس be'ālīs.
26	17	२६	چنبیس chhabbīs.	43	PP	83	tentālīs. تبنّتاليس
27	rv	२७	ستائيس satā'īs.	41	pp	88	chau'ālīs. چواليس
28	۲۸	२८	aṭhā'78.	45	Fe	1	paintālīs. پَبَتْ اليس
29	٢٩	રહ	انتبس أ wntīs.	46	۴٦		chhe'ālīs. چېبالىس
30	۳.	30	نيس <i>tīs</i> .	47	ïV	80	.saintālis سَيسُنا لبس
31	۱۳۱	39	ایکتیس (۲۸٬۱۶۰ ایکتیس) (ilitis.	48	۴۸	પ્રદ	ازتالبس) artālīs. (athtālīs الَّهْتالِيس)
32	۳۲	32	نتبس battīs.	49	وع	86	ساچٽأ unchās.
33	٣٣	33	tentīs.	50	٠٠	40	ساچ\$ pachās.
34	~ 2	38	چوٽتبس chauntīs.	51	10	49	(ckāwan ایکاوں) نظامی) نظامی) ایکاوں)
35	۳٥	३५	paintīs. پَسْتِبس	52	۲۶	42	باون المستقدم باون المستقدم ا
36	۳٦	३६	chhattīs. چېۋىيس	53	سره		trĕpan or tirpan. تِر پِي
37	~~	eε	همنتیس saintīs.	51	oje	48	chauwan. ڪِون
38	٣٨	ş⊏	ا aṭhtīs. الزَّتيس (aṛtīs.	55	20	44	بچون جون pachpan.
			(untālīs. أنتاليس	56	ا ۲۹	પર્ફ	chhappan. چېچن
39	۳۹	36	أَنْ السير	57	٥٧	ep	sattāwan.

	FIGUR	es.	NAMES.		FIGURE	es.	NAMES.
-	ARABIC	DEVA-			ARABIC	DFVA-	
58	۸ه	ηc	aṭhāwan. النهاون	75	٧٥	190	pachhattar چہتر
59	٩٥	40	سته النسته النست	76	۲۷	30	. جنهتر chhihattar
60	٦٠	ξo	. sā!ħ.	77	vv	00	.sathattar ستٰہتر
61	71	ई१	ایکسته کا د د د د کارنانه کارن	78	VA	95	athattar. النَّهَدَّر
01	''	47	أكسته إلكسته أ	79	4	90	أناسِي أناسِي أ
62	77	६२	bāsaṭh. باسقه	80	۸۰	⊏0	انسي المعلقة السي
63	٣	ફ રૂ	tresalh or ترصقه ا	81	1	ᄄ౸	ايكاسِي (čkāsī. ikāsī. اكاسِي
64	712	ફ્8	چوٽسٿيم chaunsath.	82	۸۲	⊏၃	ياسِي be'āsī.
65	70	ર્ફપ	painsath. پَينْسٿي	83	۸,	E 3	tirāsī. تِراسِي
66	77	ફંફ	چسالیوچ chhc'āsaṭh.	84	∆¦°	E8	chaurāsī. چورانسي
67	7	¢9	سرنسته sarsaṭh.	85	۸٥	Œų	پچاسِي pachāsī.
68	71	£E	arsath.	86	۸٦	⊏ ξ	چېباسِي chhe'āsī.
00	'''	Ş	أَيُّهِستَّهِ (athsath.	87	۸۷	E0	. <i>satās</i> ī.
69	79	ફ્દ	unhattar. أَنْهَتَّر	88	۸۸	ᄄ	ًا athāsī. النهاسي
70	v·	00	.sattar ستر	89	19	حو	nawāsī. نُواسِي
71	VI	99	(ایکہتر کا čkhattar.	90	9.	60	" nawe or nawwe.
72	٧٢	७२	ikhattar. اِکْہتر) bahattar. بہتر	91	91	૯૧	ایکانوي (čkānawe ایکانوي) ikānawe.
73	٧٣ -	ęe	tihattar. تِهشّر	92	97	૯ર	bānawe. بانوي
74	کرا ^د	80	chauhattar. چُوهتّر	93	۹۳	૯રૂ	tirānawe. تِرانوي

	FIGURE	3.	NAMES.	FIGURES.		s.	NAMES.
	ARABIC.	DEVA- NAGARI,			ARABIC.	DEVA-	
94	912	68	chaurānawe چُورانوي	98	91	6⊏	.athānawe النهانوي
95	90	૯૫	panchānawe پٽجانوب pachānawe پچانوي	99	99	66	ninānawe. نِنانوي) navānawe. نوانوي
96	97	હ ફ	.chhe'ānawe چهیانوی				sau. کسو
97	9 V	e9	.satānave ستانوي	100	1	900	ه نسي الم

Rem. In the compounds, nawe is generally contracted to nwe, as $ik\bar{a}nwe$, $b\bar{a}nwe$, or the vowel of n is pronounced very rapidly. In $Hind\bar{i}$ it also takes the form nawve.

sand' is نِنانوي هزار ninānawe hazār; but 'a hundred thousand' is expressed by a distinct word لاك lākh (Sanskrit laksha); a hundred lacs, or 'ten millions,' by the word كروڙ karor; a hundred karors, or 'a thousand millions,' by the word ارب arb; a hundred arbs, or 'a hundred thousand millions,' by the word كبرب khurb.

Rem. The numerals , هزار , سُو, and , مَارَب, and , are properly collective substantives, and are frequently used as such; arb and kharb do not occur as numeral adjectives in Urdū, but they are used in Numeration.

53. By adding to a cardinal number the particle دایک ده, signifying 'about,' 'or so,' the idea of indefiniteness is given to it: e.g. نیس ایک bīs ek, 'about twenty;' نیس ایک sau ek, 'a hundred or so.' When so used, the numeral generally follows the noun it qualifies; as برس چار ایک baras chār ek, 'about four years.'

Rem. This ایک is called حرف تنگیر harfe tankīr, 'the indefinite particle.' It is occasionally prefixed to nouns, and then has the signification of the English indefinite article.

- 54. The numeral ايك ek, 'one,' is rendered indefinite by placing after it the word $\bar{u}dl$ (said to be the contraction of the word $\bar{u}dh\bar{a}$, 'half,' but more probably the Sanskrit $\bar{u}di$, 'beginning'); as ايك آد ek $\bar{u}d$, 'beginning with one' 'one or more,' 'a few.'
- 55. Two numerals (not generally consecutive), when combined, often convey the idea of indefiniteness: e.g. در ما ما do chār (lit. two four), 'two or three,' 'a few;' دس بیس das [bīs, 'ten or twenty.'

THE ORDINAL NUMBERS.

The first four of the series are regularly derived from the Prākrit. The remaining ordinals are formed from the cardinals, by adding the termination wān (corresponding to the Sanskrit tuna). As in English, in numbers above a hundred, the last part of the compound takes the form of the ordinal; as ايك سَو بيسوال ck sau bīswān, 'the one hundred (and) twentieth.'

56. The ordinals are regularly inflected like adjectives ending in $l = \bar{a}$: e.g. پانچور $p\bar{a}nchw\bar{a}n$, 'the fifth,' Fem. $p\bar{a}nchw\bar{n}$, $p\bar{a}nchw\bar{n}$, $p\bar{a}nchw\bar{n}$, $p\bar{a}nchw\bar{n}$.

COLLECTIVE NUMBERS.

- 57. Collective numerals may be formed by adding to the cardinals the adjective terminations $1 \bar{a}$, $z \bar{i}$; as the chālīsā, 'a score;' چالِیسا ' $b\bar{i}s\bar{a}$, 'a score j' پیسا $batt\bar{i}s\bar{i}$, 'an aggregate of thirty-two.'
 - 58. The following nouns are used as collective numerals:

They are used as substantives, taking the noun after them in the genitive case, or in apposition.—The word is always used in lieu of مَوْ sau; a) in Numeration; as مَيكُرُّو فَهُ مَا فَهُ الْمُعُلِّرِي saikṛe, 'tens,' ايكائِي saikṛe, 'hundreds,' مُنِي مُعَوِّرِة, 'thousands:' b) in speaking of Interest; e.g. بانج رُبِنْ مَيكُرُّو بِعُورِة pāneh rupa'e saikṛe, 'five rupees per cent.'

Rem. The phrase 'per cent.' is also very generally expressed by the Persian phrase \dot{f}_{i} $\dot{f$

59. The cardinal numbers, especially the tens, may also be used as collective numerals; as چار بیس chūr bīs, 'four twenties.' More commonly, however, the cardinal number is put in the Formative plural, and is then used to convey the idea of 1) inclusiveness or totality; as دنور donon, 'the two together,' 'both' (the medial n of donon is inserted for euphony); تينوى tīnon, 'the three together,' 'all the three;' and in some cases, to add force to the form, the crude form of the numeral is added to the Formative; as eight: 2) indefiniteness or numerousness, in which case the higher numerals are of course used, and the word سَيكة saikṛa is employed in lieu of سَيكُــّـةِ وِس گَهِر sau: e.g. سَيكُــّةِ وِس گَهِر saikṛa ghar, 'hundreds of houses,' lit. 'houses in hundreds;' هزارون hazāron ādmī, 'thousands of men,' 'men in thousands;' لكهري رُيئي lākhon rupa'e, 'lacs of rupees.'

Rem. a. It would appear from the current usage of the cognato dialects, that this form originally expressed collectiveness alone, and hence may be assumed by the lower numbers also; e.g. Sindhī experimen, 'in twenties.'

Rem. b. By adding to the numeral ایک the affix of intensity, ایک elā, we have the form اکیلا akelā, 'one by itself,' 'alone,' corresponding to the series تینوں donon, تینوں tīnon, etc.'

DISTRIBUTIVE NUMERALS.

MULTIPLICATIVE NUMERALS.

- 10. The multiplicatives are formed from the cardinals: 1) by adding to them the word گني gunā (fem. گني gunā, 'time,' 'fold;' as دوگنا dogunā, or dugunā, (whence by contraction, دُگنا dugnā, and, by elision of g, the more common يُوكنا 'tigunā, 'threefold;' تَكُنا 'tigunā, 'threefold;' خوگنا 'dūnā), 'two-fold;' تَكُنا 'tigunā, 'threefold;' عرا مراه doharā or ahrā; as ايكبرا خلاهاي ايكبرا خلاهاي ايكبرا خلاهاي المنابعة المن
- Rem. a. The Persian and Arabic multiplicatives are also frequently used: the construction of these is given in §§ 103, 133.
- Rem. b. The word $\lim_{n \to \infty} gun\bar{a}$ is derived from the Sanskrit guna, 'quality,' etc; the affix $\lim_{n \to \infty} har\bar{a}$ (contracted from $\lim_{n \to \infty} h\bar{a}r\bar{a}$) from the Sanskrit $v\bar{a}ra$, by elision of v, and insertion of a cuphonic h.

NUMERAL ADVERBS.

62. The numeral adverbs once, twice, thrice, etc. are expressed by adding to the cardinals the word بارا $b\bar{a}r\bar{a}$, 'time' (Sanskrit $v\bar{a}ra$), or one of the synonymous Arabic words مرتبه daf'a, مرتبه daf'a, ایک بار daf'a, مرتبه daf'a, مرتبه daf'a, ایک بار daf'a

do دو بار '; ck martaba, 'once ایک مرّتبه ek daf'a or ایک دفّعه ایک دفّعه dō bār, ایک مرّتبه dō bār, دو بارا dō martaba, etc., 'twice;' تین بار tīb bār, تین دفّعه tīn bār, تین دفّعه tīn bār, تین دفّعه tīn bār

Rem. The same affixes (with the change of bārā into bāra) are used with the Persian cardinal numbers (§ 104).

63. Numeral adverbs showing in what order certain facts are treated, are expressed by employing the ordinals in the Formative singular: e.g. پرکیای pahle, 'firstly;' کُوسْری 'firstly;' برکیای tisre, 'thirdly,' etc.; or by using the Persian ordinals; as اَوَل avval, 'firstly,' کُومْ duwum, 'secondly,' etc. (§ 104).

FRACTIONAL NUMBERS.

64. The fractional numbers are: a) Substantives; as

(pā'o,¹) (a quarter.' موائي sawā'ī, 'one and a quarter.' موائي sawā'ī, 'one and a quarter.' تبائي

Rem. The fractional numbers of the Arabic are also of frequent occurrence: e.g. نِشْن nisf, 'a half,' ثلَّث guls, 'a third,' etc. (§ 134); and the Persian نِيم nīm, 'half,' is occasionally used.

b) Adjectives; as

ه اره ماره ها مساره و مساره و

is derived from the Sanskrit pāda; تبهائيي from the Sanskrit trutīyānsa; ياؤو is derived from the S. adj. pādona; پون and يون from the S. arddha; أسط from the S. sapāda (sa + pāda), 'with a quarter,' يا أرف from the S. sārddha (sa + arddha), 'with a half

- 65. These fractions always precede the numeral or the noun with which they are used; and the unit employed in using them is 1, from 1 to 99 inclusive; 100, from 100 to 999 inclusive, and so on: e.g. $paune\ b\bar{i}s = 20 \frac{1}{4}$ of $1 = 19\frac{3}{1}$; $paune\ b\bar{i}s = 20 \frac{1}{4}$ of $1 = 19\frac{3}{1}$; $paune\ saw\bar{a}\ un\bar{i}s = 19 + \frac{1}{4} = 19\frac{1}{4}$; but $paune\ saw\bar{a}\ uolumber to 100 = 75$; $paune\ saw\bar{a}\ do\ saw = 200 + \frac{1}{4}$ of 100 = 225; $paune\ do\ haz\bar{a}r = 1000 + \frac{1}{4}$ of 1000 = 1250; $paune\ do\ haz\bar{a}r = 2000 \frac{1}{4}$ of 1000 = 1750.
- 960. پَوْن paun, differs from پَوْن paune, inasmuch as it is generally used with units only; as پَوْن رُوپِيَا paune rūpayā, 'a rupce minus a quarter,' i.e. 'ﷺ of a rupce;' پَوْن گُـز 'paun gaz, 'ﷺ of a yard.'

آدها $\bar{a}dh\bar{a}$, 'half,' is an ordinary adjective, and is used accordingly.

and پُونے sārhe, is used in the same manner as ساڑھے sārhe, but only with numerals after 2; e.g. موا sārhe tin, 'three and a half;' خار sārhe chār, 'four and a half,' etc. Similarly ساڑھے تس سُو sārhe tīn sau, 'three hundred and fifty,' etc.; and ساڑھے تیں مزار sārhe chār sau, 'four hundred and fifty,' etc.; and ساڑھے تیں مزار sārhe tīn hazār, 'three thousand five hundred,' and so on.

قية derh is used with units of measure, quantity, etc. (as one yard, one maund), and with the collective numerals هزار , sau, هزار , etc.: e.g. قية د گز derh gaz, 'one yard and a half;' قية د سو derh sau, 'one hundred and fifty;' قية هزار 'derh hāzār, 'one thousand five hundred.'

aṛhāī also is used with collective numerals and nouns denoting measure, quantity, etc., which may be in the singular or the plural, as in the case of the integers:

e.g. ارهائي هزار '; aṛhāī sau, 'two hundred and fifty ارهائي سَو aṛhāī hazār, 'two thousand five hundred;' عرباهة الهائي گز (; aṛhāī hazār, 'two thousand five hundred ارهائي رُوپِيَه 'two yards and a half;' ارهائي رُوپِيَه aṛhāī rūpiya, 'two rupees and a half.'

Rem. From these fractions are derived other nouns and adjectives signifying 'consisting of,' 'containing,' 'at the rate of,' etc. e.g. أَوْنَ وَاللّٰهُ وَاللّٰمُ وَاللّٰهُ وَاللّٰهُ وَلَا اللّٰهُ وَاللّٰهُ وَاللّٰهُ

67. Other fractional numbers are: a) those which are formed from the integers, or from the fractions, adjectives or substantives; as

b) those which have a special application, and are formed by adding to the fractions پائه $p\bar{a}$ and الده $p\bar{a}$ and الده suffix $p\bar{a}$ or $p\bar{a}$ $p\bar{a}$ and $p\bar{a}$ and the suffix $p\bar{a}$ or $p\bar{a}$ $p\bar{a}$ and $p\bar{a}$ and the angle $p\bar{a}$ adheli, 'half a pice' $(pais\bar{a})$; الدهيلا adheli, 'half a rupee.'

58. Distinct from the system of notation noticed above is that called تر, rakam (an Arabic word signifying 'writing, or price-mark' on a thing), which is always used in recording pecuniary transactions, or computations involving weight, measure (of land), such as maunds, bīghās, etc. (as shown in the Plate adjoining). It is taken, for the most part, from the initial letters of the names of the Arabic عدد one is a contraction of the Arabic

1. est - 1/25. \$ 64 .05 . 11.3211 - 11.31 20 ~ي 90 500 V 0 70 200 10 5 5 000 6 00 06 وسي Read ر ل 150 5 10 ન ક 40 40 70 50 44 TO 3 47 40 2 = 2 2 = 2 3 = 2 10 4 4 740 وع 10 16 مديا رکی 120 19 4 5 bv 5 10 pr يتسا 750 V J 70 10 HO V h v v 3 9 ميكم الاد ميد 1 7 1 RO D ŋ <u>6</u> ~ かり はんり م 100 ዛላ 4 4 1~) ~7) T 09 917 901

'adad; عدمان معدان 'adadān; عددان 'adadān; عددان 'adadān; عددان 'adadān; ثلثغ عاقبة على 'adadān, ثلثغ عاقبة على 'adadān, عددان 'adadān, adadān, ad

PERSIAN AND ARABIC CONSTRUCTIONS.

69. The Urdū borrows largely from the Persian and Arabic languages, and the words borrowed are frequently treated according to the rules of inflection peculiar to the language from which they are taken. A knowledge of some of the most important facts of Persian and Arabic inflection is therefore indispensably necessary to the student of Urdū.

PERSIAN CONSTRUCTIONS.

- 70. Gender.—There is no distinction of genders in Persian. The distinction of sex is indicated, as in English, by the use of different words; as نور man, نور woman; or by the aid of the words نام nar, 'male,' ماده 'made, 'female;' منير نر shere nar, 'a male tiger,' شير ماده shere made, 'a female tiger.'
- 71. Declension.—In the declension of nouns, the c s, with the exception of the genitive, accusative, and vocative, are formed by means of prepositions, as in English. The only cases which demand notice in connection with Urdū are the genitive and the vocative.

THE GENITIVE.

72. The 'relation of the genitive case' (اضافت izāfat) is indicated by placing the determined or governing noun first, with the vowel kasra (called كَسْرِةُ إِضَافت the kasra of annexation) attached to its final letter; as 'ilmě

tibb, 'the science, or art, of medicine;' فعر بغداد 'shahrë bagdād,' the city of Bagdād.' If the governing noun end in s = a, or j = i, hamza must be employed to enounce the kasra (which need not then be written, since hamza can occur in such a position for no other purpose); e.g. ملكة هند or ماكة هند malikaë hind, 'the Queen of India;' ماكة هند $m\bar{a}h\bar{i}$ ë daryā, 'the fish of the sea.' When the first, or governing word, ends in either of the long vowels $i=\bar{a}$, $i=\bar{u}$ or $i=\bar{u}$ or $i=\bar{u}$, the face of the throne $i=\bar{u}$, $i=\bar{u}$ $i=\bar{u}$, 'the face of the earth.'

Rem. a. In employing this construction in Urdū, a Hindī proper name may stand in the place of the governed noun, but the governing noun must be Persian or Arabic: e.g. شير بريلي shuhrë barelī, 'the city of Barelī' (Bareilly).

Rem. b. Whatever be the sign of the $iz\bar{a}fat$, its sound in $Urd\bar{u}$ is always that of short $e(\zeta)$, between the kasra and the $y\bar{a}'\xi$ majh $\bar{u}l$.

73. The genitive may also be formed by reversing the order of the words and placing the governed noun first, in which case the izāfat is not used: e.g. ناه shahr parnāh يناه shahr, 'the protection of the city,' 'a wall of defence round a city;' yahān panāh panāh جهار بناه إلى panāhē jahān, 'the refuge of the world,' 'His Majesty.' But the more common result of this construction is either an attributive compound (corresponding to the Bahavrīhi of the Sanskrit); as عمل عمل sang-dil, 'possessing a heart of stone,' 'hard-hearted;' فيلتي sang-dil, 'possessing a heart of يري رُوي parī-rū, 'fairy-faced;' or a determinative compound (corresponding to the Talpurusha of the Sanskrit); e.g. pand-nāma, 'the book of counsels;' مندناه shab-gāh, 'night-time.'

THE VOCATIVE.

74. The vocative case may be formed as in English, by prefixing an interjection to the nominative: e.g. آي درستا ai dost, 'O friend;' but another common way of forming it is to add the termination $1-\bar{a}$ to the nominative; as $2\bar{a} \ell l l \bar{a} \ell l$, 'O heart;' درستا $\ell l l l l l$, 'O heart;' درستا $\ell l l l l$, 'O friend.' If the nominative end in \bar{a} , a cupleonic ℓl is inserted between it and the affix; e.g. خدایا خدایا $\ell l l l l l l l$

THE PERSON.

- 75. The terminations of the plural are two; namely $\bar{a}n$ for things animate, and \bar{b} $h\bar{a}$ for things inanimate: e.g. $\bar{a}n$ for things animate, and \bar{b} $h\bar{a}$ for things inanimate: e.g. $\bar{a}n$ for things animate: e.g. $\bar{a}n$ for things inanimate: e.g. $\bar{a}n$ for things inanimate: e.g. $\bar{a}n$ for things $\bar{a}n$, 'a cupbearer,' pl. $\bar{b}a$, 'a man,' pl. $\bar{b}a$, 'a time,' pl. $\bar{b}a$, ' $\bar{b}a$, 'a year,' pl. $\bar{b}a$, 'a jear,' a time,' pl. $\bar{b}a$, ' $\bar{b}a$, 'a year,' pl. $\bar{b}a$, ' $\bar{b}a$," There are exceptions however, chiefly in the use of the plural affix $h\bar{a}$ (which in Persia would appear to be now used generally to form the pl. of all nouns): e.g. $\bar{b}a$, 'lamps,' 'lamps,' ' $\bar{b}a$, 'horses.' If the singular end in $\bar{b}a$, this letter is changed into $\bar{b}a$ before the termination $\bar{a}a$ is added, and dropped before the addition of $\bar{b}a$: e.g. $\bar{b}a$ bandagān, 'slaves,' 'servants,' from $\bar{b}a$ \bar
- 76. The Persian plural of nouns denoting inanimate things is also formed, in imitation of the Arabic, by the addition of the termination $ab = \bar{a}t$ to the singular: e.g. ab = ab = ab جهات ab = ab برهات ab = ab برهات ab = ab برهات ab = ab برهات (in contradistinction to 'the town'), from برهات ab = ab ب

THE ADJECTIVE.

- 77. The construction of the genitive case is also that of the noun and its qualifying adjective, the adjective being generally placed after the noun: c.g. مرّد نیک murdě nek, 'a good man,' زبان شِیرین abāně shīrīn, 'a sweet tongue.'
- 78. The adjective however often precedes the substantive, and in that case the izāfat is dispensed with: e.g. نيك مرّد nek mard, 'a good man.' But more generally in this construction, the adjective and noun together form either a determinative compound (corresponding to the Karmadhāraya of the Sanskrit); as بَ مُشْنُدُهُ رَبِي عَشْنُدُهُ رَبِي بِهِ لَهُ الْمُسْلِمُ اللهُ الل

Comparison of Adjectives.

79. The comparative of an adjective is formed by adding to the positive the termination تر tar; the superlative, by adding تريى tarin: e.g.

لَهُمْ بِهُمْ běh-tar, better,' بِهُتْرِيں běh-tar, better,' فَهُمُ بِهُمُ běh-tarīn, best,' فَهُمُ لِهُمُ لَهُ bad-tar (or بَدَّتِرِين) مِثْرِين bad-tarîn بَدَّتِرِين bat-tar), worst,' في bat-tarīn bat-tarīn bat-tarīn

fāzil, 'learned,' فاضِلْترِ يس fāzil-tar, 'more فاضِلْتر fāzil, 'learned,' learned.'

- Rem. a. The suffixes تریس and تریس are frequently added to the Arabic superlative (§ 106); e.g. آولیل تر عالهٔ aulā-tar, 'better,' ولی تریس tarīn, 'best.' Such forms may be regarded as double comparatives and superlatives.
- Rem. b. The suffix $1 \bar{a}$ adds the idea of intensiveness to the signification of an adjective; as $\frac{khwush\bar{a}}{2}$, 'very happy,' from 'happy.'

THE INFINITIVE AND VLRBAL NOUN.

- 80. Persian infinitives are of rare occurrence in $Urd\bar{u}$, but derivatives from them, as also from the verbal root, are frequently met with.
- 81. The infinitive always ends in one of the syllables دى dan or تى tan; as بيدى dīdan, 'to see;' گُفْتى guftan, 'to speak.'

VERBAL ADJECTIVES.

83. Past Participles are formed from infinitives, by changing the final ω into silent ω . They may have both an

active and a passive signification (though more commonly the latter), and may be used either as adjectives or substantives: e.g. غيده d'idu, 'seeing,' 'seen,' 'the eye' (from برورده 'to see'); پيدن parwarda, 'protected,' 'a protégé.' The past participles of some neuter verbs generally have the signification of the present part.; as غقته khufta, 'sleeping,' 'asleep' (from غفته to sleep'); شایستن shāyista, 'decent,' 'proper,' 'becoming' (from شایستن 'to become,' 'to be worth').

84. Passive participles are of frequent occurrence in composition with nouns, forming therewith determinative compounds (like the Tatpurusha of the Sanskrit): e.g. سال sāl-khwurda, 'old in years;' عايد پرورده sāl-khwurda, 'old in years;' عايد عايد sāya-parwarda, 'brought up in the shade,' 'delicately reared.' Occasionally the final s of participles ending in ss is dropped; as زنگ آلوده zang-ālūd (= زنگ آلوده), 'covered with rust,' 'rusty.'

Rem. The participle ending in ב ta does not appear to be so used; but it seems probable that many words, as בים 'a friend,' בים 'fortune,' ישים 'intoxicated' (= Sanskrit मत्त), which are now used as substantives and adjectives, were originally past participles.

- 85. Active Participles, adjectives, and nouns of agency, are formed:—a) By adding to the roots of verbs the terminations:
- 1) الله \bar{a} ; as دانا من $d\bar{a}n\bar{a}$, 'knowing,' 'learned,' 'wise,' 'a sage' (from the root of دانِستن 'to know'); ابينا $b\bar{i}n\bar{a}$, 'seeing,' 'seer' (from بين $b\bar{i}n$; the root of کويا 'to see'); کويا 'to speaking,' 'speaker,' 'an orator' (from the root of 'to speak'); تُوَانا 'to speak'); گفتن $tuw\bar{a}n\bar{a}$, 'powerful' (from the root of ثُوانِسْتن 'to be able'). Participles so formed sometimes

have a passive, as well as an active, signification; e.g. پذِيرا pazīrā, 'accepting,' and 'accepted' (from the root of پذِيرُفْتن 'to accept').

- 2) ان $\bar{a}n$; as جویای $joy\bar{a}n$, 'seeking,' 'seeker' (from the root of رای 'to seek'); رای $raw\bar{a}n$, 'going' (from the root of بارای 'to go'); بارای $b\bar{a}r\bar{a}n$, 'raining,' 'rain' (from the root of باریدی 'to rain'); گویای "goyān, 'speaking,' 'speaker,' 'an orator' (from the root of گفتی 'to speak').
- 3) نده عنج anda (or indu); as ونّده ravanda, 'going,' 'goer' (from the root of رقّنی 'to go'); کُبِنّده 'doer' (from the root of کرّدن 'to do'); جوینّده joyanda, 'seeking,' 'seeker' (from the root of جُسْتن 'to seek').

- b) By adding the root of a verb to a noun, and thus forming a determinative compound (corresponding to the Tatpurusha of the Sanskrit). The root governs the noun:
- 1) In the accusative; as کاردای kār-dān, 'knowing work,' 'skilful;' زمیندار 'a landholder; زمیندار 'māl-guzār, 'paying revenue,' 'one who pays revenue,' 'a tenant;' علبند 'a tenant;' علبند 'na'l-band, 'fastening or fixing a shoe' (on a horse, etc.), 'a farrier.'
- 2) In the ablative; as شمشيرزن shamsher-zan, 'striking with the sword,' 'a swordsman' (from the root of زدن 'to strike').

- 3) In the locative; as تَخْت نِشِين takht-nishin, 'sitting on a throne,' 'a king' (from the root of نِشستن 'to sit'); subh-khez, 'rising in the early morning,' 'one who so rises,' and thence, 'a morning-thief' (from the root of خيزيدن 'to rise').
- rū-shinās, 'known by the face,' 'an acquaintance' (from the root of the passive) (from the root of بخشیدن 'to bestow'); شناختی 'to know,' 'to know,' etc.).
- Rem. b. In Urdū a Persian root is occasionally joined to a Hindī word, which, if it end in ā, is inflected: e.g. عبر الله 'a watch-maker;' مولات 'a mace-bearer' بردار being the root of برداشتن 'to carry,' etc.); نوت باز 'one who repeatedly plays jokes,' 'a jester;' وري باز 'one who plies the whip,' 'a whipper.'
- و) By adding a passive participle to a noun; as جہاں jahān-dīda, 'one who has seen the world,' 'experienced;' غم خُورٌده gum-khwurda, 'one who has suffered sorrow.'
- a) By adding the suffixes تار tār and دار dār to apocopated infinitives (the former to those ending in تن, and the latter to those ending in دى), and eliding the عن or د of the infinitive termination; e.g. خواستار), 'one who makes a request,' 'a petitioner' (from خواست تار 'to wish,' etc.); خریددار <u>kharīdār</u> (for خواستن), 'a purchaser' (from خریددار 'to purchase').

Rem. These suffixes sometimes form adjectives with a passive signification; as گرفتار giriftār, 'taken captive,' 'captive' (from گرفتار) 'to take or seize'). They are also used to form abstract substantives (§ 97).

SUFFIXES FORMING NOUNS OF AGENCY.

- 86. Nouns of agency, and adjectives, are also formed by adding to substantives the following suffixes:
- 1) کار (kār; دستگار dust-kār, 'a handieraftsman,' 'an artificer' (from دسّت 'hand'); جفاکار jufā-kār, 'an oppressor' (from غیشکار 'oppression'); پیشکار pesh-kār, 'an assistant,' 'an agent' (from پیش 'before').
- 2) گار (from خِدْمَتْگار as گار (from خِدْمَتْگار service'); پُرهیزگار پرهیزگار پرهیزگار (abstinent,' 'a devout man' (from پُرهیزگار 'abstinenee'); پُرهبز عال پُرهیز gunāh-gār, 'an offender,' 'a sinner' (from گناه 'sin'); پرهبز situm-gār, 'unjust,' 'an oppressor' (from سِتم مار 'oppression'); یادگار پَرتار پَرتار پُرتار پُرتار (from سِتم memorial,' 'a monument' (from یاد 'remembrance').

Rem. The idea of agency is sometimes not very prominent: e.g. roz-gār, 'time,' 'the world,' 'fortune' (from وزگار)' day').

3) گر gar; as آهن آهندر تhan-gar, 'a blacksmith' (from گر (iron') جِنْدگر jild-gar, 'a book-binder' (from جِنْدگر jild-gar, 'a book-binder' (from جِنْدگر); 'a volume'); ورگر زگر زگر زگر زگر زگر زگر shīsha-gar, 'a glass-blower' (from شِيشه گر 'glass'); شِيشه فارستم گر sitam-gar, 'an oppressor' (from سِتم گر oppression').

الرجي الله bāwar-chī (lit. 'one possessing trust or confidence'), 'a cook' (from باور trust, confidence'); 'trust, confidence'); 'mash'al-chī, 'a torch-bearer' (and, in India) 'a cook's mate' (from مشعل 'a torch'). If the final letter of the noun be a (silent), it is dropped before the termination is added; as خزانه khazān-chī, 'a treasurer' (from خزانه 'treasure').

Rem. This suffix is derived from the Turkish.

5) بان bān, or وان wān, signifying 'keeping, watching, or guarding;' as باغ bāg-bān, 'a gardener' (from باغ 'a garden'); باغ dar-bān, and دروان dar-wān, 'a gatekeeper,' 'a porter' (from دروان 'a gate'); گریبان girebān, 'the collar of a garment' (lit. 'that which protects the گریبان milrbān, 'benevolent,' 'affectionate,' 'kind' (lit. 'guarding or keeping مبربان), or affection').

Rem. This suffix is occasionally attached to Hindī words also: e.g. है. हे कुंदग्र-wān, or औं कुंदग्र-bān (= है। कुंदग्र-bān (वैद्युक्त है। 'a cart man, or carter.' The original suffix is doubtless وأن (related to the Sanskrit वन्त vant), the letters ω and ω being interchangeable.

- 87. Possessive Adjectives and substantives are formed by adding to substantives the following suffixes, denoting 'possession,' 'affection,' or 'fullness':

to ما $\bar{a}r$; e.g. سالار $s\bar{a}l$ - $\bar{a}r$ (lit. 'possessed of years,' 'old,' and thence,) 'a chief, or leader'; ويوار $d\bar{i}w$ - $\bar{a}r$, 'a wall' (lit. 'possessing a stratum, or foundation,' from داو, for ماو, im $\bar{a}la$, or change of vowel).

Rem. In some words the suffix ār is redundant: e.g. زنگار zang-ār (= زنگار), 'rust,' also written زنگال zang-āl, the letters ما d being interchangeable. So also دِيوال for دِيوال 'a wall.'

- ور (from بالله ور (from الله 'life'); جائور sar-war, 'a chief, or leader' (from سر sar-war, 'a chief, or leader' (from سرور); جنده المتاه الم
- 3) وار (wār; as أمنيذوار umed-wār, 'having hope,' 'hopeful' (from موگوار 'hope'); موگوار sog-wār, 'having grief,' 'mourning,' 'afflicted' (from سوگوار 'grief,' 'sorrow').

Rem. The suffix آور من آور awar is properly (though not used as) the root of the verb آور دن 'to bring;' and to this is related the suffix وور , the root of the verb بردن , the root of the verb بردن

pounded with the preposition \tilde{l} , becomes \tilde{l} , \tilde{l} and \tilde{l} being interchangeable. From again, by lengthening the vowel, is formed the suffix \tilde{l} is but another form of \tilde{l} .

- مار $s\bar{a}r$; as شرّمْسار sharm- $s\bar{a}r$, 'bashful,' 'modest' (from 'shame').
- 6) مند mand; دانشمند danishmand, 'possessing learning, or wisdom,' 'learned,' 'wise' (from دانش 'knowledge,' etc.); دانش 'wealthy' (from دانش 'wealthy'); مقل alth-mand, 'sensible,' 'wise' (from عقلمند 'understanding'). This suffix sometimes takes the forms عقلمند and مند umand: e.g. مند barūmand, 'fruitful,' 'fertile,' 'successful,' 'happy' (from برومند fruit'); ما ارجمند arjumand (and ارجمند arjumand), 'precious,' 'esteemed' (from ارجمند 'price').

Rem. عند corresponds to the Sanskrit मन् mant. It occasionally also takes the form وَدُد , the Sanskrit वन् want.

مَّرُمِّكِيں abashed,' 'bashful;' شَرَّمُكِيں gīn; as شَرَّمُكِيں sharm-gīn, 'abashed,' 'bashful;' خِشْمَكِس خِشْمِ 'khishm-gīn, 'inflamed with anger,' 'irate' (from خِشْم 'anger'); غَمْ يَّاسِ 'sorrow').

Rem. The original form of آگس is آگس آ agin, derived from the verb آگندن, and signifies 'filled.' Added to nouns it sometimes serves to express a quality, as well as to form a possessive.

s) ناک nāk; as فنبّناک gaṣub-nāk, 'inflamed with wrath,' 'enraged' (from غضب 'rage,' 'violence'); مردّناک dard-nak, 'painful' (from درّد 'pain'); هُولْناک 'fearful' (from هُولْناک 'fear,' 'terror').

Rem. এটা more commonly forms adjectives of quality. It would appear to be related to the Sanskrit বৰ্ naj. It is occasionally added to verbal roots and adjectives also.

- 88. Possessive Adjectives are also formed by prefixing to a substantive:
- ا) با $b\bar{a}$, signifying 'possessed of,' 'according to;' as $b\bar{a}$ - $b\bar{a}$
- 2) عاجِب sāhib (an Arabic noun, signifying 'possessor,' 'owner'); as عاجِب دِل sāhib-dil, 'pious,' 'godly' (lit. 'possessor of the heart'); عاجِب جمال sāhib-jumāl, 'beautiful,' 'handsome' (from عاجِب 'beauty'); عاجِب sāhib-nuṣib, 'fortunate' (from نعِيب 'destiny,' 'fortune').
- 89. Negative Adjectives, denoting privation, or the absence of a quality, are formed by prefixing to a noun one of the following prepositions or adverbs, corresponding in signification to the English un, in, dis, less, etc.:
- 1) بے be, 'without' (always prefixed to substantives); as بے اِنصاف be-parwā, 'fearless,' 'careless;' بے اِنصاف be-inṣāf, 'unjust;' بے وفا be-wafā, 'faithless.'
- 2) کم kam, 'less,' 'lacking' (prefixed to substantives); as کم بخت kam-bakht, 'luckless;' کم زور 'kam-zor, 'powerless,' 'feeble;' کم جمّت 'kam-himmat, 'spiritless,' 'unaspiring.'
- ن الْميد ، 'not' (prefixed, originally, to adjectives alone, but, at the present time, to substantives also); as نا أميد $n\bar{a}$ -umed, 'hopeless,' 'despairing;' نا پاک ' $n\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}k$, 'unclean;' na-khwush, 'displeased;' نا اهّل $n\bar{a}$ -akl, 'unworthy.'
- 4) غَير gair, 'other,' 'different,' 'opposite' (borrowed from the Arabic, and used before substantives and adjectives); as غير حاضِر 'gair-inṣāf, 'unjust;' غير رائصاف gair-hāzir, 'not present,' 'absent;' غير مُمْكِي 'gair-mumkin, 'impossible.'

- 5) الآمة, 'not' (also borrowed from the Arabic, and prefixed chiefly to substantives, or adjectives employed as substantives); as المائة المقادة المق
- 90. Adjectives of Similitude are formed by adding to substantives the suffixes:
- مرد آسا آasa, سان sa, or سان sa شیرتا sher-asa, or شیرسا sher-sa, or مرد آسا sher-sa, or مرد آسا sher-sa, or شیرسان sher-sa, 'like a tiger,' 'tigrish 'asa asa, 'like a man,' 'manly 'asa asa asa

Rem. The origin of these suffixes is the verb سُودن, whence by prefixing the preposition آ, the verb آسودن is derived.

2) سار sār; as خاگسار <u>kh</u>āk-sār, 'like dust,' 'humble;' مار sug-sār, 'dog-like,' 'miserly,' 'a miser.'

nem. سار affixed to substantives and adjectives is occasionally synonymous with سر 'head;' e.g. سگسار sag-sār, 'dog-headed,' 'an inhabitant of a region where the inhabitants have heads like dogs;' سبگسار sabuk-sār (= سبگسار, 'light-headed,' 'unsteady,' 'foolish.'

- 3) ما بَرُرَكُوار as بَرُرُكُوار buzurg-wār, 'like the great,' 'great,' 'excellent;' فرده وار 'zarra-wār, 'atom-like,' 'humble.'
- 4) گان gān; as خُدايگان <u>khudā egān</u>, 'like God' (a title of kings and great men), 'most excellent,' 'omnipotent.'

Rem. The signification of 'similitude,' in the case of both and, often passes into that of 'fitness,' 'worthiness' (see § 91, 2, 3).

5) שוֹ mān; as آسْمان āṣmān, 'like a mill-stone' (revolving), 'heaven' (from آسْمان 'a mill-stone'). 'a mill-stone'). '

¹ Such is the derivation of asman according to native scholars. The Zend form of the word is ashman, the Sanskrit ऋषमन् asman.

- Rem. المان is used in some Persian words with the signification of 'possessing,' but is not found in Urdū. In the word شائل it does not signify 'possession,' as Professors Monier Williams and Dowson affirm, but is redundant. It never can signify 'possession' when joined to an adjective.
 - 6) ساهّوش wash; as ماهّوش māh-wash, 'like the moon.'
- 7) غُداونّه wand; as خُداونّه <u>kh</u>udū-wand, 'like God,' 'lord,' 'possessor;' whence, by contraction, خاونّه, also signifying 'lord,' 'master,' 'husband.'
- 91. Adjectives denoting fitness or worthiness are formed by attaching to substantives the suffixes:
- 1) אוב āna; as אוא shāhāna, 'befitting a king,' 'royal,' 'splendid;' אנוא mardāna, 'becoming a man,' 'manly.'
- Rem. a. Such is the teaching of the native grammarians; but it appears far more probable that in these words, as also in ديوانه ـ بزُرگانه and many more, the relative suffix هـ (﴿ 92, 6) is added to the plurals مردان ـ شاهال, etc.: خانه also occurs as a relative suffix.
- Rem. b. From the signification of 'fitness,' arises that of 'manner,' which is also common to this suffix, and hence its use in forming adverbs: e.g. شاهانه 'royally,' شاهانه 'in a manly manner;' غرضانه 'interestedly.'
- 2) شاهگای $sh\bar{a}e$ - $g\bar{a}n$ (for شاهگای), 'worthy of a king;' راهگای $r\bar{a}e$ - $g\bar{a}n$ (for راهگای), 'fit to throw on the road,' 'a thing found on the road,' hence, 'a thing obtained, or lost, for nothing,' 'anything worthless.'
- 3) مان wār, or وار wāra; as شاخوار shāh-wār; 'worthy of a king,' 'princely,' 'royal;' الزُرَّوْار 'buzurg-wār, 'worthy of the great,' 'great,' 'excellent;' گوشواره gosh-wār, or گوشواره 'gosh-wār, or

gosh-wāra, 'suitable to the ear,' 'an earring;' سَاهُوار māh-wār, or مَاهُوار māhwāra, 'adapted to a month,' 'monthly stipend,' etc., 'monthly.'

Rem. From the signification of 'fitness,' etc., arises that of 'measure,' 'quantity;' as $j\bar{a}ma$ -war, ('fit to make,' or) 'sufficient to make a garment' = $j\bar{a}ma$ -bhar. The original form of this suffix is $j\bar{a}ma$ -bhar, ecorresponding to the Sanskrit and Hindī $\mathbf{H}\mathbf{T}$ bhar.

- 4) جَوْرُدنِي i, added to infinitives only; as جُورُدنِي <u>kh</u>wur-danī, 'fit to eat,' 'catable' (from خُورُدن 'to cat'); گُفتنِي 'to cat'); شُدنِي 'shudanı, 'fit to be.'
- 92. Relative Adjectives and Substantives are formed by adding to substantives the suffixes:
- ال عال عنال (used to form substantives); as جنگال $\bar{a}l$, 'a claw' (from چنگ 'bent, curved'); فرم الله خنبال 'the extremity of a thing,' 'a tail' (from ذم = دُنب 'a tail').
- 2) اے $\bar{a}n$; as بیاباں $biy\bar{a}b\bar{a}n$, 'a desert' (from بے بیاباں 'without water'); پایاں $p\bar{a}y\bar{a}n$, 'end' (of the foot), 'extremity' (from پایاں 'foot'); پیشاں peshan, 'the front or foremost part' (from پیشان 'before;' from پیشان is derived پیشانی $peshan\bar{i}$, 'the forehead').

3) انه (from عنانه dast-āna, 'a glove' (from دسّت hand'); مرّدانه mard-āna 'pertaining to man; کاشانه kāsh-āna, 'a glass-house,' thence generally, 'a house;' سالانه sāl-ana, 'pertaining to a year,' 'yearly.'

- على (from گِرْدٌگان $g\bar{a}n$; as گِرْدٌگان $gird \cdot g\bar{a}n$, 'a walnut' (from گِرْدُ 'round'); يَدْ قَان $dih \cdot g\bar{a}n =$ يَ 'pertaining to a village,' 'a villager' (يَدْقَال is the Arabic form of the word); بازرُگان $b\bar{a}zar \cdot g\bar{a}n$ (from بازرُگان), 'a merchant.'

Rem. The suffixes اوند and are also relative, and are common in Persian, although not frequently occurring in Urdū: e.g. خداوند 'pertaining to God,' 'a lord;' خویشاوند 'pertaining, or related, to self,' 'a kinsman.' These suffixes are all no doubt derived from the Sanskrit वन् vant, nom. वान vān.

Rem. The suffix s— is sometimes redundant, as in چاره chāra, کینه kīna, چاره āwāza.

7) ت بین آn, denoting, besides relation, the material of which a thing is made; as زرین zarīn, 'golden' (from زرین 'gold'); رنگت rangīn, 'coloured' (from رنگت 'colour'); پوستین 'sangīn, 'of stone; نمکین namakīn, 'salty; پوستین 'postīn, 'a cloak or jacket made of a skin' (پوستی).

Rem. In lieu of بي به the form ينه sometimes occurs: e.g. بي به pashmīna, 'made of wool,' 'woollen;' كانت ganjīna, 'that which is obtained from a repository of treasure,' 'a treasury.' The suffix با الله salso used in forming the superlative degree, and is added to many words to form degrees of comparison: as بيشين peshīn, 'anterior;' الرابي pasīn, 'posterior.' It is sometimes redundant: e.g. اولي أ first.'

8) جي \bar{i} , forming patronymics and other relative adjectives; as پارسي pārsī, 'of I'ersia,' 'Persian;' نام هندي hindī, 'of India,' 'Indian;' شاهِي shāhī, 'pertaining to a king,' 'royal;' خوني ' \bar{i} tishī, 'of fire,' 'fiery;' أنسي \bar{i} \bar{k} \bar{h} \bar{i} \bar{n} \bar{i} $\bar{$

Rem. ي is occasionally redundant, chiefly at the end of Arabic words: e.g. إِيَادتي 'itikādī = أعِتقاد 'to believe firmly;' وَيَادت عَنْهُ عَلَيْهُ عَنْهُ وَالْعَنْهُ وَالْعُلْمُ وَالْعَنْهُ وَالْعُلْمُ وَالْعُلْمُ وَالْعُلْمُ وَالْعُلْمُ وَالْعُلْمُ وَالْعُلْمُ وَالْعُلْمُ وَالْعُلْمُ وَالْعُلْمُ وَالْمُؤْلُونُ وَالْعُلْمُ وَالْعُلْمُ وَالْعُلْمُ وَالْعُلْمُ وَالْعُلْمُ وَلِيْ وَالْمُؤْلِمُ وَالْمُلِمُ وَالْمُؤْلِمُ وَالْمُلِمُ وَالْمُؤْلِمُ وَالْمُل

93. Adjectives denoting colour, or similitude of colour, are formed by means of the suffixes قَامِ $f\bar{a}m$, and $g\bar{u}n$, as غَامِ $siy\bar{a}h$ - $f\bar{a}m$, 'blackish;' لَكُ أَلُو la'l- $f\bar{a}m$, 'ruby-coloured;' لَكُ أَلُو gul- $g\bar{u}n$, 'rose-coloured;' لَا الله أَو gul- $g\bar{u}n$, 'tulip-coloured.'

Rem. فام may also take the forms وام vam, وام pam, and بام bam; and in place of كُونه the form كُونه is occasionally found.

94. Adjectives and substantives denoting fellowship, companionship, equality, etc., are formed by prefixing to a substantive the adverb and, signifying 'together,' 'same,' and corresponding to the English 'fellow,' 'mate,'

'con-,' 'co-;' as هم درّ هه ham-dard, 'fellow-sufferer,' 'sympathetic' (from هم جنس 'pain'); هم جنس ham-jins, 'of the same genus, or class,' 'congener,' homogeneous;' هم عُمْر 'hom-'umr, 'of the same age,' 'coeval;' هم سبق ham-sabak, 'a class-fellow' (from سبق 'a lesson').

Rem. בים may also occur as the latter part of a compound, a preposition being prefixed to it: e.g. שׁל bāham, 'together,' 'along with;' בים bar-ham. 'upon one another,' 'confused' 'jumbled,' 'angry,' dar-ham, 'one under another,' 'higgledy-piggledy,' 'confused,' 'angry.'

- 95. Nouns of Place, or الممائي مكان asmā'ĕ mukān, called also الممائي فلاوف asmā'ĕ zurūf ('nouns that express the vessels which contain things'), are formed: a) by placing after a noun one of the following nouns:
- 2) گاد $g\bar{a}h$, 'place;' as شكارگاه $shik\bar{a}r$ - $g\bar{a}h$, 'hunting-ground;' عِبادت گاه ' $ib\bar{a}dat$ - $g\bar{a}h$, 'place of worship;' خواب ' $ib\bar{a}dat$ - $g\bar{a}h$, 'sleeping-place,' 'bed-chamber.'

Rem. گاه signifies 'time,' and is used to form nouns of time (الله عبرگاه asmā'ē zamān); as السمائي عبرگاه saḥar-gāh, 'morning' (from سعر 'dawn'); شام گاه shām gāh, 'eventide' (from شام گاه).

3) خانه khūna, 'house;' as كَارْ خَانه kūr-khūna, 'a workshop;' كُتُب خانه kutub-khūna, 'a library' (from كُتُب خانه 'a book'); قَيْد خانه kujd-khūna, 'a prison' (from قَيْد خانه 'imprisonment:' in India the compound جيل خانه, from the English 'jail,' is also commonly used).

Rem. The words گاه ,آباد must not be regarded as suffixes.

The construction is that of the inverted genitive (§ 73), and forms determinative compounds.

- b) By adding the following suffixes to nouns:
- 1) المُّلِستان istān (the Sanskrit सान sthāna); as گلِستان istān, 'a rose-garden;' وهِستان koh-istān, 'a mountainous region;' ريگِستان reg-istān, 'a sandy place.' If the noun end in a vowel, the initial vowel of the suffix is dropped: e.g. بُوستان būstān, 'a place of fragrance,' 'a garden.'
- 2) گلشن shan; as گلشن gul-shan, 'a rose-bed, or rose-garden.'
- 3) نا nā, or نائیائے; as آبنائے 'iāb-nā'e 'a strait;' تنگنائے 'tang-nā'e, 'a narrow place,' 'a defile,' 'a strait' (also تنگنا نامِروسَةَ).

A variety of the noun of place is the noun of multitude (الله ismě kaṣrat), which designates the place where the object signified by the noun to which the suffix is added, is found in large numbers or quantities. It is formed by means of the following suffixes:

- 1) اگزار as gul- $z\bar{u}r$, 'a place where roses abound,' 'a rose-garden;' سبّزه زار 'sabza- $z\bar{u}r$, 'a place where verdure abounds,' 'a meadow;' بازار $b\bar{u}$ - $z\bar{u}r$ (contracted from ابازار), 'a place where provisions (با) abound,' 'a market.'
- 2) عار sār; شاخسار shākh-sār, 'abounding in branches,' 'a place where branchy trees abound;' نمكسار 'abounding in salt,' 'salty,' 'a salt-mine;' رُخْسار 'tukh-sār, 'the cheek,' 'the face.'
- عار (a place abounding in stone,' 'a stone-pit;' جويبار 'joe-bar, 'a place abounding in streams;' بریبار zang-bar, 'the country inhabited by the Ethiopians,' 'Zanguebar.'

- Rem. אָל is related to the Sanskrit אָל vāra, 'a multitude.' It has other significations also; e.g. a) 'permission,' 'approach to royalty,' as in בּתִּילוּת darbār, 'the court or levee of a prince:' b) 'time,' 'turn,' as אַלוּת yak-bār, 'one-time,' 'once.' With the suffix אַלוּת must not be confounded the root of the verb אַל יַבנּט 'to rain,' which occurs in compounds: e.g. אַל מּתַיּלִּת gauhar-bār, 'raining or scattering pearls.'
- 4) منتُّلان as منتُّلان sang-lā<u>kh</u>, 'a place abounding in stone;' ديولان den-lā<u>kh</u> (or de o-lā<u>kh</u>), 'a place abounding in demons.'
- 96. Connected with the noun of place is the 'noun which is the vessel or receptacle (ظرف) of a thing,' and which is formed by means of the suffix دال dān; e.g. ممدال namak-dān, 'a salt-cellar;' نمدال shama-dān, 'a candle-stick;' قامدال kalam-dān, 'a pen-case.'
- Rem. This suffix is added to Hindī nouns also, and may take the form دانی; c.g. وانی; c.g. وانی $iug\bar{a}l-d\bar{a}n$, (or گالدانی $iug\bar{a}l-d\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$), 'a spit-box;' $p\bar{\imath}k-d\bar{a}n$ (or پیکدانی $p\bar{\imath}k-d\bar{a}n$ (or پیکدانی $p\bar{\imath}k-d\bar{a}n$), 'a spittoon'—properly, 'a vessel for receiving the $ug\bar{a}l$ or $p\bar{\imath}k$, i.e. the juice of the betel-leaf which is spit out.' Nouns (masc.) ending in \bar{a} are inflected before the affix is added: e.g. داری e.g.
- 97. Abstract Nouns are of two kinds: a) those which denote states or acts, and are verbal, being derived from infinitives, or roots of verbs:
- 1) By dropping the final ن of infinitives; as خريد kharīd,

 'purchase,' from خريد 'to buy;' درخواست 'dar-khwāst,

 'request,' from درخواستن 'to desire or request;' فروخت 'to sell.'
- 2) By adding the suffixes عار tūr and عار dūr to apocopated infinitives; the former to those which end in تي tun,

- and the latter to those ending in دن dan; e.g. گفتار guftār, 'saying,' 'speech ;' رفتار 'raftār, 'gait,' 'procedure ;' ديدار dīdār, 'seeing,' 'sight.'
- 3) By adding to the roots of verbs the suffix $\vec{a}k$; as $\vec{a}k$, 'agitation;' $\vec{b}k$, 'food;' $\vec{b}k$, 'inflammation,' 'strangury.'
- 4) By adding the suffix া- ān to verbal roots; as فرَّمان farmān, 'command' (the Sanskrit प्रमाण pramāṇa); باران bārān, 'rain.'
- 5) By adding the suffix شب ish to verbal roots; as نام نام الله غوام نام ish to verbal roots; as يُرورش برورش برورش برورش برورش jarwarish, 'nurture,' 'support;' بينش أنس bīnish, 'seeing,' 'discernment;' مازش dānish, 'knowledge,' 'wisdom.'

Rem. This suffix often forms abstract nouns of quality also.

- 6) By adding the suffix a = a to verbal roots; as a = a to verbal roots; as a = a to verbal roots; as a = a 'tremor;' نالِش a = a 'lamentation;' 'whiteness.'
- b) Those which denote qualities: they are formed by means of the suffixes:
- 1) $l = \bar{a}$, added to adjectives; as گرما $garm\bar{a}$, 'heat,' 'summer;' سرما $sarm\bar{a}$, 'cold,' 'winter.'
- 2) جي آ, added chiefly to adjectives, primitive and verbal; as دانائيي 'nekī, 'friendship;' ديني nekī, 'goodness;' نيكي 'nekī, 'goodness;' هَفَيدِي dānāī, 'wisdom;' هَفَيدِي khidmatgārī, 'service;' عَظْمَنْدِي 'wisdom.' If the final letter of a Persian adjective be هـ م, it is changed into ع before the termination is added; e.g. بندگي bandagī, 'service;' تازگي 'tāzagī, 'freshness;' دمتيدگي chaspīdagī, 'adhesiveness,' 'attachment' (from

- خسپيده the pass. part. of چسپيده 'to stick'); but if the adjective be an Arabie word, the final h is changed to t (or rather the original \ddot{s} t, which on account of the loss of the final vowel became s h, is restored); e.g. $ziy\bar{u}-dat\bar{\iota}$, 'excess,' from زياده $ziy\bar{u}da$, 'more,' 'excessive.'
- 98. The Diminutive is formed by means of the following suffixes:
- 1) عند الله (used chiefly with nouns denoting animate things); as مردک الله mardak, 'a manikin,' 'a contemptible man;' الله tiflak, 'a little child;' الله aspak, 'a small horse,' 'a pony;' دستاک 'alastak, 'a small hand,' 'a tap at a door;' يَشُورِك 'sambūrak, 'a small gun or swivel.'
- Rem. a. s being interchangeable with \ in Urdū, this suffix sometimes takes the form چ; e.g. دیگیی degchā; whence, by forming the Hindī diminutive thereof, دیگیی degchī.
- Rem. b. Diminutive forms are commonly used in Persian and Urdū to express contempt, endearment, regard, etc.
- 99. Compounds occur in great variety of forms in Persian, and many such are borrowed by the Urdū. The most important of these—the Determinative and the Attributive—have been noticed in treating of the genitive case, and the adjective (§§ 73, 78). There remains:

THE COPULATIVE COMPOUND.

This may be composed: 1) of two verbal roots or imperatives: a) either one and the same verb repeated, and the last a negative; as دار وحدار dār-ma-dār (and دار وحدار), 'hold, hold not,' 'adjustment of a dispute;' کش مکش الماله الما

- 2) of an apocopated infinitive and the root of the same verb; as جُسْت 'guft-gū (and گُفْت وگو), 'conversation ;' جُسْت ' $just-j\bar{u}$ (and جُسْت وجُو $just-j\bar{u}$ (and جُسْت وجُو), 'search,' 'quest.'
- 3) of two apocopated infinitives; as آمد رفّت āmad-raft (and آمد ورفّت), 'coming and going,' intercourse;' گُنْت 'guft o shanūd, 'speaking and hearing,' 'colloquy,' 'altercation.'
- 4) of two nouns of different signification, as پاي و پر pa'e-o-par, 'power;' or of the same signification, as جو جُو اَلَمْ يَعْلُ وَقَالُ اللهِ إِنْ اَلْ اِلْمُعْلِيْنِ وَقَالُ اِلْمُعْلِيْنِ وَقَالُ اِللهِ إِنْ اِللهِ إِنْ اِللهِ اللهِ اللهِ اللهِ اللهِ اللهِ اللهُ ا

Rem. To this class also belong those compounds in which the last word (which is used merely to rhyme or jingle with the first) is called the عرّج مر تابع tābi' or appositive, by the native grammarians: e.g. هرّج مرج مرج (tabi' tabi' tumult.'

Two words, whether the same or different, are often connected by means of the letter I, which may have the signification: a) of 'and;' e.g. کشاکش kushā-kash, 'pulling one way and the other,' 'distraction,' 'tumult;' رستاخیز 'rastā-khez, 'escaping and rising,' 'the day of resurrection;'

تگاپر tagāpū, 'running and running,' 'diligent search,' 'bustle,' 'toil.'

- b) of close proximity; as برابر barā-bar, 'breast to breast,' 'on a level with,' 'equal;' لبالب labā-lab, 'lip to lip,' 'brimful;' دمادم damā-dam, 'moment to moment,' 'each moment,' 'continually.'
- e) totality or completeness; e.g. سراسر sarā-sar, 'from end to end,' 'throughout,' 'altogether;' سراپا sarā-pā, 'from head to foot,' 'completely.'

NUMERALS.

100. The following Table gives the leading Cardinal Numbers:

<u></u>	•	duroāzdah	12
گو	2	stadah	13
sih	3	ده chahārdah	14
chahār چهار	4	pānzdah	15
ينج panj	5	shānzdah شانزده	16
shush	6	مغُده hafdah	17
هنیت haft	7	، ، hashdah ،	18
هشت hasht	8	• نوزده nūzdah	19
i nuh	9	bīst	20
ss dah	10	bīst-o-yak بَيست ويك	21
yāzdah , .	11	bīst-o-du بيست و دُو	22

87 سِي	30	si ṣad	300
chihal چېل	40	chahār-ṣad چهار صد	400
panjāh	* 50	pan-sad يانصد	500
shaṣt	60	shash-ṣad . ششصد	600
مغّتا <i>د haftād</i>	70	منتصد haft-sad	700
مشتا <i>د hashtād</i>	80	hasht-ṣad .	800
nuvad	90	nuh-ṣad نهاصد	900
sad	100	هزار hazā r	1000
. şad-o-yak صد و يك	101	ده وار dah hāzār.	10,000
dū-ṣad دُو صد	200	lak ک	100,000

ORDINAL NUMBERS.

101. The ordinal numbers are formed by adding the termination من um to the corresponding cardinals, but in the third and the ninth (optionally) the final s is changed into before the termination is added; e.g. يكم yakum, 'first;' من duwum, 'second;' من siwum, 'third,' etc.; من nuhum, or نُوم nuwum, 'ninth;' من duhum, 'tenth,' and so on. If the number lie between the decades (as بيست و دُوم bīst-o-duwum, 'twenty-second.'

DISTRIBUTIVE NUMERALS.

102. The distributives are formed, as in Hindī and Urdū, by repeating the cardinals: e.g. يك يك يك yak yak, 'one at a time,' 'singly,' 'one apiece;' مُودُوْرُ dū dū, 'two at a time,' 'by twos,' 'two apiece.'

MULTIPLICATIVES.

103. Multiplicatives are formed by adding to the cardinals: 1) the adverb چند chand, 'so many:' e.g. کُوچند

du-chand, 'twofold;' 2) the suffix ت tā; as يكنا yak-tā, 'single,' يكنا du-tā, 'double:' 3) the suffix كُوتا gāna (corresponding to the Hindī affix يكنانه gunā): e.g. يكنانه yagāna, 'single' (for يكن كانه by contraction); كُوكانه du-gāna, 'double.'

NUMERAL ADVERBS.

104. The numeral adverbs 'once,' 'twice,' etc., are expressed by adding to the cardinals the word باره bār, or باره bāra, 'time,' or one of the synonymous Arabic words نَوْبِت naubat, يَكُبار naubat, عَبُر يَكُ نَوْبِت naubat, عَبُر يَكُ نَوْبِت naubat, و. يُكُبار yak-bāra, or يَكُبار yak-bāra, يَكُ نُوبِت yak-bāra, يكُباره du-bār, 'once;' المعادلة du-bār, كُوبِار أي du-naubat, etc., 'twice.' The adverbs 'firstly,' 'secondly,' etc., are expressed by the ordinals: e.g. يكم yakum, 'firstly,' مُوبُور duwum, 'secondly,' etc.

ARABIC CONSTRUCTIONS.

105. Nearly all Arabic words are derived from some verbal root, consisting for the most part of three letters, with the help of one or more of the seven letters of augmentation (or, as they are commonly termed, servile letters) y, t, s, m, u, ū, ā, or a, which are comprised in the word yatasammanū. A large number of verbal nouns are derived from the ground form of the triliteral verb, but it is not necessary to notice more of these than occur in Urdū; the models (or, as they are technically termed, the measures) of such are given below with examples. In these measures, as in those of all the derived forms to be noticed, the letters in the servile is acting, are employed to indicate radical letters, and the servile is to represent final and of the Urdū.

ME	MEASURE. EXAMPLE.		MEASURE.		EXAMPLE.	
1.	فَعْل	katl, 'killing.'	17.	فعكال	لَّهُ du'ā, 'praying.'1	
2.	فِعْل	'ilm, 'knowing.'	18.	فَعُول	'kabūl, 'accepting.' قَبُول	
3.	فُعْل	hukm, 'ordering.'	19.	فغول	huṣūl, 'acquiring.'	
4.	فَعَل	إلىب talab, 'seeking.'	20.	فعلكن	hirmān, 'repelling.' حرّوان	
5.	فِعَل	sigar, being small.	21.	فعلان	"gufrān, 'forgiving. غُمْران	
6.	فعكل	مُدى hudā, 'guiding aright.'	22.	فعَلَان		
7.	فَعْكَة	ralimal, 'pitying.'	23.	ا فَعَالَة	tating.' sa'ādat, 'being سَعَادَت	
8.	فِعْكَة	riḥlat, 'travelling.' رِحَلَت	;		happy.'	
9.	فغكة	بْ kudrat, being able. قَدْرَت			'kitābat, 'writing.' کِتَابِت	
10.	فَعَكَ	harakat, 'moving.' حَرَكَت		1	'bugāyat, 'rebelling.' بْغَايَت	
11.	فَعِلَة	'.sariķa, 'stealing سَرِقَهُ	26.	افغولة	su'ābat, ' being difficult.'	
12.	فَعْلَي	' da'wā, 'asserting.'	27.	فَعَلْبَة	rafàhiyat, 'being رفاهيت	
13.	فِعْلَي	zikrā, 'romembering.' فركري			ample.'	
14.	فُعْلَي	1. And Ought O. Communi-		1	marja', 'returning.'	
15	فعال	1 7- (1 ()		1	marhamat, 'pity- ing.'	
	فعال	kiyām, 'standing.' أ	30. ä	مَنْعُد	mamlukat, 'having مملکت dominion.'	

All these forms cannot be derived from one verbal root; very few verbs have more than two or three, and the majority admit of but one form. Some of the measures (for example Nos. 10, 11, 18) offer very few examples in Urdū.

In verbal nouns of the measures of Nos. 15, 16, 17, final 9 or φ is in Arabic changed into hamza (as generally happens when they follow the alif of prolongation), but the Persians and Indians drop the hamza, unless the noun is in the status constructus, and the $i\varphi \bar{u}fat$ is used.

VERBAL ADJECTIVES.

- 106. Other important derivatives are the *verbal* adjectives. The *measures* of those which commonly occur in Urdū are:
 - the Active Participle, or Noun of Agency: e.g. خاعِل (alim, 'a learned man' (from علم 'to know'); عالِم 'to judge'); حكم إلى بقلانه, 'ajudge,' etc. (from حكم to judge'); صابِر 'to be patient'); ضبر gāfil, 'negligent' (from غفل gāfil, 'negligent' (from غفل

Rem. If the second radical of the verbal root be o or ج., it is changed into hamza (5) in the active participle; e.g. قائم kā'im, 'standing' (from 'to stand'). If the second and third radicals be identical, the second rejects its vowel and unites with the third so as to form a double letter, which is marked with $tashd\bar{\imath}d$: e.g. $kh\bar{a}\bar{\imath}s$, 'special' (from $kh\bar{a}s$); as however $tashd\bar{\imath}d$ over a final (vowelless) letter is useless, it is dropped in $Urd\bar{u}: e.g.$ $kh\bar{a}s$. If the third radical be hamza (1), or o, it is changed into s: e.g. $kh\bar{a}l\bar{\imath}$, 'empty' (from s).

2) مَعْلُوم the Passive Participle: e.g. مَغْلُوم ma'lūm, 'known' (from منظُور 'to know'); منظُور manzūr, 'scen,' 'approved' (from نظر 'to see').

Rem. If the second radical letter be , it is clided in the pass. part., but throws back its zamma upon the preceding vowelless letter: • مَعُول to say'). If the second radical be , the same thing takes place, but, to indicate the clision of radical , the zamma is changed into kasra, and the servile , is in consequence changed into : e.g. مَعْنُون madī', 'sold' (from بيعة 'to sell'). If the third radical be , it is elided: e.g. مَدْعُون mad'ū, 'called,' 'invited' (from دعو 'to call').

a form expressing either an inherent or permanent quality, or a degree of intensity: e.g. مكيم hakēm, 'a sage' (from حكيم 'to judge,' etc.); حيم raḥīm, 'very compassionate' (from رحيم 'to have merey').

Rem. Adjectives of the three measures noticed above are commonly used as substantives also.

a form with the same signification as the preceding: e.g. صبُور subūr, 'very patient' (from منبُور 'to be patient'); فنرور 'gafūr, 'very forgiving' (from غفر 'to forgive').

Rem. Verbal adjectives of the measures فعيل and فعُول, derived from verbs of which the third radical is , or , are subject to the same changes as those of the form نبي . e.g. نبي nabī, 'a prophet' (from نبي).

اَنْعَل (the measure of the noun of preeminence [انْعَل (5 ismě tafzil). It has the signification of the English comparative and superlative, and is formed from verbal adjectives with three radicals, or with three radicals and a letter of prolongation: e.g. اخسر ahsan, 'more or most beautiful' (from ____ hasan, 'beautiful'); aszal, 'more or most excellent' (from akbar, 'greater,' اكبر أَ akbar, 'greater, فاضِل 'greatest' (from کبیر kubīr, 'great'). measure is also used for adjectives denoting colour, or deformity, derived from neuter triliteral verbs: e.g. اصّفر asfar, 'red;' احّمر asfar, 'yellow;' اغرج 'a'raj, 'lame' (by nature); اغملي a'mā. 'blind.'

107. From triliteral roots are derived other forms of verbal nouns also, which, since two or more of the servile letters occur in them, are termed augmented infinitives (عند مزيد maṣdarĕ mazīd) by the native grammarians. It will be more convenient to speak of them as verbal nouns of the second, third, etc., derived forms. These

verbal nouns moreover have corresponding adjectives, similar to the فَعُول and مَفْعُول of the first or ground form of the triliteral verb." The measures of both are given below, with examples.

- a) VERBAL NOUNS OF THE DERIVED FORMS.
- فر و e.g. تغییل tafrīḥ, 'gladdening' (from تغییل 'being glad'); تغیل تغلیم 'to know'); تغیل tazkira, 'reminding' (from علم 'to remember'); عام tazkira, 'reminding' (from خرک 'to remember'); فرق نوته 'to remember') فرق 'to separate'). Of the two measures, the first is the more common, the last is used chiefly where the third radical letter is , or .

Rem. If the third radical of the verb be و or و , it is changed into ! e.g. مُلاقات mulākāt, 'meeting,' from مُلاقات 'to meet.'

10. اِجْرا -e.g. اِخْعَال ijrā, 'causing to flow' (from جري 'to flow'); اِخْراج $i\underline{k}\underline{h}r\overline{a}j$, 'causing to go out,'

'issuing' (from خرج 'to go out'); انكار inkūr, 'denying' (from نكر 'not knowing or acknowledging').

Rem. If the first of the radical letters be, it is changed into في: e.g. (إُوفًا مَا) إِيفًا (for إِيفًا), ifa, 'performing a promise' (from إِيفًا). If the second radical be or or it is elided, but throws back its vowel upon the vowelless first radical, and the termination t is added by way of compensation: e.g. إَعُوالَى from إِعُوالِى from إِعُوالِى from إِعُوالِى from إِعُوالِى tis changed into hanza: e.g. وَعَلَى قَرَامِ وَنَا اللهُ اللهُ اللهُ وَنَا اللهُ وَمَا اللهُ وَمُؤْمِلُ اللهُ وَمَا اللهُ وَمِعْ اللهُ وَمَا اللهُ اللهُ وَمَا اللهُ وَمِنْ اللهُ وَمَا اللهُ وَمِنْ اللهُ وَمَا اللهُ وَمَا اللهُ وَمَا اللهُ وَمِنْ اللهُ وَمِنْ اللهُ وَمَا اللهُ وَمَا اللهُ وَمِنْ اللهُ وَمِنْ اللهُ وَمِنْ اللهُ وَمِلْمُ وَا

v. تَنَعُّل -c.g. تَنَعُّل takabbur, 'making oneself great,' 'being proud' (from تَحْبِير takbīr, 'making great'); تَعْبِير taṣawwur, 'picturing to oneself,' 'conceiving' (from تَحْبِير taṣwīr, 'making a picture').

Rem. If the third radical be و or و is always changed into و, and), the influence of the ي changes the zamma of the penult syllable into kasra: e.g. تسلَّى tasallī, 'becoming comforted' (from سلَّى).

vi. تناعُل e.g. تناعُل tanāsub, 'resembling,' 'being related' (from مُناسِت munāsabat, 'being related to'); تقارُب takārub, 'approaching' (one another), from مُقارِب mukārabat, 'approaching.'

Rem. If the third radical be و or و, the same change is made as in the fifth form: e.g. تداوي tadāwī, 'treating oneself medically' (from ي The Persians frequently change the final عي).

words into اے; as تمنا tamannā, 'desire,' نمنا tamāshā, 'spectacle,' 'recreation,' 'fun.'

vii. اِنْفِعَال infiṣāl, 'being decided' (from اِنْفِعَال 'to decide'); اِنْفِعَال inkishāf, 'being uncovered, or revealed' (from کشف 'to open or reveal').

Rem. If the third radical be و or ي, it is changed into hamza, which however is, as usual, dropped in Urdū: e.g. إِنْطِفًا (for النَّطِفَا), intifā, 'being extinguished' (from النَّفِي).

viii. اِجْتَمَاع e.g. اِفْتِعَال ijtimā', 'becoming collected,'

'assembling' (from جمع 'to collect');

خام 'to place' اِفْتِراْض 'to place' before

one); قام المُّذِر 'to make powerful,' etc.).

Rem. If the first radical letter be ت t, the characteristic ت of this form unites with it into ت; as إِنَّالَةُ أَنْ اللَّهُ وَاللَّهُ وَاللَّهُ

IX.—This form does not occur in Urdū.

x. اِسْتِغْعَال e.g. اِسْتِغْعَال isti'dūd, 'getting oneself ready,'

'being ready' (from عَـ, the verbal noun of

the fourth form of which, viz. اِسْتِغْفَار i'dūd,

signifies 'making ready'); اِسْتِغْفَار istigfūr,

'seeking forgiveness' (from غفر 'to forgive').

Rem. a. The changes which take place in this form are precisely similar to those which take place in the fourth form.

Rem. b. The following brief observations will throw light on the signification of these various forms:

The second (انْعَيل), and the fourth (إنْعَال), are usually eausative or factitive. Verbs that are intransitive in the first form become transitive in these, and those that are transitive become doubly transitive, or causative. But in some instances the two forms have different meanings: e.g. I. تعليم 'ilm, 'knowing,' 'knowledge,' II. عليم 'ilm, 'knowing,' 'knowledge,' II. عليم 'ilm, 'informing one of a thing.'

The third (مَعْاعَلَىّٰنَ), and the sixth (تَعْاعُلُنَّ), commonly convey the idea of reciprocity, the latter necessarily so. When the first form is transitive, the third expresses the effort or attempt to perform that act upon the object; e.g. مَعْالِينُ katl, 'killing,' مَعْالِينُ mukātala, ('trying to kill, or) fighting with.' In the sixth form the idea of effort or attempt becomes reflexive: e.g. جَادُل tajāhul, 'feigning ignorance.'

The fifth form (تَعَعْنَ) is the reflexive of the second; but it is more commonly used with the effective signification, implying that an act is done to a person, or a state produced in him, whether caused by another or by himself: e.g. تعلّم 'ilm, 'knowledge,' تعلّم 'ta'līm, 'teaching,' تعلّم 'ta'allum, 'becoming learned.' The idea of intensiveness (which is often found in the second form) exists in the tifth also: e.g. تعرّم 'tafarruk,

*separation into many groups, or in various directions.' In English this form must often be rendered by the passive.

The seventh form (اَنْفَعَالُ) is reflexive or effective in signification, and approaches nearly to the passive, by which it must often be rendered into English.

The eighth form (الفتعال) is the reflexive of the first. The reflex object is either the accusative or the dative: e.g. أَصْرَاضُ i'tirāz, 'putting oneself in the way,' opposing' (from عرض placing something before one'); اضطراب أنطراب 'pacing oneself to and fro,' being agitated' (from ضرب 'beating'); افتدار (from فرب iktidār, 'seeking power for oneself,' becoming powerful' (from قدرت being powerful,' power'). The reflexive signification often gives rise to the reciprocal (which this form has in common with the sixth), and occasionally passes into the rassive. In many cases too the eighth form has the same signification as the first.

The tenth form (السَّنْعَالُ) is commonly used in the sense of taking, seeking, asking for or demanding what is signified by the first: e.g. السَّعْنَارُ 'to forgive'). It also often converts the factitive signification of the fourth form into the reflexive: e.g. السَّعْدَالُ isti'dād, 'getting oneself ready,' 'being prepared' (from jacili dād, 'making ready,' 'preparing').

Rem. e. The verbal nouns of the first and derived forms are commonly used as abstract substantives: e.g. تذكره 'ilm, 'knowledge,' عَذْكِره 'tazkira, 'mention.'

b) VERBAL ADJECTIVES OF THE DERIVED FORMS.

The measures of these, with examples, are tabulated below. The difference between the form for the Active and that for the Passive Participle, consists simply in the vowel of the final syllable, the former taking kusra, and the latter futha.

MEASURE OF ACT. PART.	EXAMPLE.	MEASURE OF PASS, PART.	EXAMPLE.
المُفَعِّل ، 11	möullim, 'a teacher'	مُّفَعَّل '	moʻullam, مُعلّم
	(from علم).		'taught.'
الله لمُفاعل	"muḥāfiz, 'guarding,'	منفاعل	muḥāfaz,
	'custodian' (from خفظ).		'guarded.'
مُنْعل ١٧٠	musrif, 'squander-	إمنعكار	muṣraf,
	ing' (from عثرُف).		'squandered.'
مُتَفَعّل ٨	mutabaddil, 'chang-		"mutabaddal مُتبدّل
	ing' (from بدل).		'changed.'
إ وُ لِتَفَاعِل ٢١٠	"mutu'ārif, 'knowing' مُتعارف	أستناعل	mutaʻāraf, مُتعارف
	(from عرف).		'known.'
	munkashif, 'reveal-		munkashāf,
	ing' (from کشف).		'revealed.'
viii. لغتغل	mo'tamid, 'trusting'	ا منتعَل	mb'tamad,
	(from sac).		'trusted.'
ٔ نسنتعل ۲۰	mustalthrij, extract-	إ "سننفعار	, mustu <u>kh</u> raj منستخرج
1	ing' (from خرج).	1	'extracted.'

- 108. Verbs consisting of four radicals also occur in Arabic, having a ground form and three derived forms; but the first and second forms alone occur in $Urd\bar{u}$. Employing an additional J to denote the fourth radical, the measures of the *verbal nouns* of these forms are:
 - tarjama, 'interpreting,' 'translation' (from ترجمه 'to interpret'); زلزله ; 'shaking' (from زلزل 'to shake').
 - 11. تَوْلُوْل -e.g. تَعْعُلُل tazalzul, 'becoming in a state of motion,' 'being shaken' (from زلزل 'to shake').

109. The measures of the *verbal adjectives* corresponding to these nouns are:

Possessive Adjectives.

- 110. These, as used in Urdū, are properly determinative compounds, in which the first noun governs the second in the genitive. The governing noun is generally one which conveys the idea of possession, origin, etc. The following are examples of those which occur in Urdū:
- 1) ابُو abū, or بُو bū, 'father,' 'originator,' etc.: e.g. ابُو الْبُو تُراب dbū-turūb (or بُو تُراب), 'dusty,' from تُراب turūb, 'dust,' (bū turūb was the nickname given by Moḥammad to his son-in-law 'Alī); بُو ٱلْعَجِب bu'l 'ajūb, 'cause of wonder,' 'wonderful;' بُو ٱلْمُهُ فَيْ الْهُ الْهُ عَلَيْهُ لَا لُهُ الْهُ الْهُ وَالْهُ وَالْمُ وَالْهُ وَالْمُ وَالْمُؤْفِقُونُ وَالْمُونُ وَالْمُ وَالْمُؤْفِقُونُ وَالْمُؤْفِقُ وَالْمُؤْفِقُونُ وَالْمُ وَالْمُؤْفِقُونُ وَالْمُؤْفِقُ وَالْمُؤْفِقُونُ وَالْمُؤْفِقُ وَالْمُؤْفِقُونُ وَالْمُؤْفِقُونُ وَالْمُؤُفِقُونُ وَالْمُؤْفِقُونُ وَالْمُؤْفِقُونُ وَالْمُؤْفِقُونُ وَالْمُؤْفِقُونُ وَالْمُعُونُ وَالْمُؤْفِقُونُ وَالْمُؤْفِقُونُ وَالْمُؤْفِقُونُ وَالْمُعُلِيقُونُ وَالْمُؤْفِقُونُ وَاللَّهُ وَاللَّالِمُ وَاللَّهُ وَاللَّهُ وَلِلْمُ وَاللَّهُ وَاللَّالِمُ وَاللَّهُ وَاللَّهُ وَاللَّهُ وَاللَّهُ وَاللَّهُ وَلِمُ لِلللَّهُ وَاللَّهُ وَاللَّهُ وَلِلْمُ وَاللَّهُ وَلِلْمُ وَاللَّهُ وَاللَّالِمُ وَاللَّهُ وَلِلْمُ وَلِلْمُ لِلَّالِمُ وَلِلْمُ لِلَّالِمُ
- نِي بَوَنَهِ بَوْنَ بِيْنَ رُامِسَانَ اللهِ بَوْنَ بَوْنَ بَوْنَ بَالْكُوْرِ بَالْكُورِ بِيْكُورِ بَالْكُورِ بَالْكُورِ بَالْكُورِ بَالْكُورِ بَالْكُورِ بِيْكُورِ بِيْكُورِ بَالْكُورِ بِي الْكُورِ بَالْكُورِ بِي الْكُورِ بِي الْكُورِ بِي الْكُورِ بِي الْكُورِ بِي الْكُورِ بِيْكُورِ بَالْكُورِ بِي الْكُورِ بِي الْكُورِ بِي الْكُورِ لِيْكُورِ بَالْكُورِ بِي الْكُورِ لِيْكُورِ بَالْكُورِ بِي الْكُورِ لِلْكُورِ لِلْكُورِ

Rem. The form نِي نِي zī occurs most frequently in Urdū, being used

even in ordinary conversation. It is combined with Persian words also: e.g. نجى هوش يَق-hosh, 'sensible,' 'intelligent.'

Rem. The genitive construction is occasionally indicated by the use of the izāfat: e.g. عاجب تخت بين sāhibč takht, 'possessor of the throne,' 'a king.' Such is always the case when the governing nouns are ارباب arbāb (pl. of باكل arbāb (pl. of اكثل arbāb (pl. of اكثل arbāb ارباب خرد) arbāb ارباب خرد 'possessor;' and اكثل arbābč kharad, 'intelligent or wise persons;'

RELATIVE ADJECTIVES.

- 1) If the primitive noun be of the measure فَعَل, the kasra of the middle radical is changed into fatha: e.g. ملك malakī, from ملك 'a king.'
- 3) Final ا, من and ي are changed into, before adding the termination عني , and kusra of the preceding letter is changed into fullu: e.g. عصوي usuwī, from عنوي 'a staff;' وهُلُوِي 'meaning,' وهُلُوِي 'meaning,' وهُلُولِي 'Dehlī.'

. Rem. If, however, the primitive noun consist of more than four letters, final الله مصطنع are rejected: e.g. مصطنع mustafī, from مصطنع 'chosen.'

b) by adding to nouns the termination بنايي; as

إن بي بي ماني jismānī, 'corporeal,' from جِسْم 'body.' (وحاني rāḥānī, 'spiritual,' from رُوحانِي 'spirit.' نفس naſsanī, 'pertaining to the soul,' 'lustful,' from نفسانِي 'soul.' نورانِي 'light.'

ABSTRACT NOUNS OF QUALITY.

112. Abstract nouns of quality are formed by adding the feminine termination - at to relative adjectives, or, which amounts to the same thing, by adding the termination - iyat to nouns and particles: e.g.

'human.' أِنْسَانِي insānīyat, 'humanity,' from إِنْسَانِيَّ 'human.' الْهِيِّت' أَلْهِيِّت' ilāhīyat, 'divinity,' 'Godhead,' from الْهِيَّت

يُفِيت kaifīyat, 'quality,' from كَيْفِي (from كَيْفِي 'how?'). مَا مُلِيَّت māhīyat, 'the what,' 'substance,' from ماهِيّت

Rem. In a few words the Aramaic termination عن مُ تَ لَلُهُ اللهُ اللهُ

Nouns of Place and Time.

- 113. Nouns of place and time (منعل مكان و زمان asmāre makān o zamān) generally take the form مكتب, the initial syllable مكتب ma being characteristic: e.g. مكتب maktab, 'a place where writing is taught,' 'a school' (from كتب makhraj, and مكتب madkhraj, 'a place of egress, and ingress' (from مخرج 'to go out,' and مخل 'to go in'); خرج maylis, 'the place where, or time when, several persons sit,' 'room,' 'assembly,' 'party' (from جلس to sit'); مسجد "masjid, 'a place of worship,' 'a mosque' (from مسجد 'to worship').
- in performing the act expressed by a verb are called منعال asmāc ālāt. They generally have the form منعال, and are distinguished from the nouns of place by the kasra with which the prefixed م m is pronounced: e.g. miṣṭala, 'a key' (from مِعْتَال 'to open'); متعلل 'to polish');

¹ Forbes, and other grammarians after him, say that "the Abstract noun is formed by means of the feature termination at or "yat," and give as examples the words hukimat, kismat, kismat, etc. These however are infinitive nouns, or nouns of action, and though, like all verbal nouns (e.g. "ilm, "knewledge"), they may be used as abstract nouns, they are not "abstract nouns formed by means of the termination at;" this suffix can only form abstract substantives when added to relative adjectives. The other termination should be "yat, not eyat.

مِيزان mīzūn (for مِوْزان), 'a balance or pair of scales' (from ويزان).

THE DIMINUTIVE.

ismě tasgīr) is not of common occurrence in Urdū. It generally takes the form فَعَيْل, though one or two words take the form فَعَيْل though one or two words take the form عُمَيْر 'Hasan;' مُسَين 'Hasan;' مُسَين buḥaira, 'a small sea,' 'a lake,' from مَّسِن buḥr, 'a sea.'

GENDER.

- 116. The most usual termination by the mere addition of which to masculines (chiefly adjectives) feminines are formed, is $\ddot{s} = at$, which in Urdū is changed into s = a: e.g. a), $v\bar{a}lida$, 'mother,' from alika, 'father,' alika, 'queen,' from alika, 'king;' alika, 'king;' alika \bar{b} $\bar{$
- 117. Adjectives of the measure أَفَعُلُ, when they have the superlative signification, form the feminine after the measure غَيْلُي . e.g. غَيْلُي kubrā, from اكبر akbar, 'greatest,' awwal, 'first.' But when they denote colour or deformity, the measure of the feminine is غَيْلُ : e.g. اغْرِجَ sufrā, from عَرْجًا 'asfar, 'yellow; عَرْجًا 'asfar, from عَرْجًا 'araj, 'lame.'

Number.

- 118. Arabic nouns have three numbers, the singular, dual, and plural.
 - 119. The dual is formed by adding the termination

يَا – ani to the singular; as كِتَابَانِ kitūbāni, 'two books,' from كتاب 'a book.'

- 120. The plurals are of two kinds. The one, which has only a single form, is called جنے سالِم jam'ĕ sālim, 'the complete or entire plural,' because all the vowels and consonants of the singular are retained in it. The other, which has various forms, is called جنے تکسیر jam'ĕ taksīr, 'the broken plural,' because it is more or less altered from the singular by the addition or clision of consonants, or the change of vowels.
- 121. The complete, or regular plural of masculine nouns is formed by adding to the singular the termination $\bar{u}na$; e.g. خاضر $h\bar{u}zir\bar{u}na$, from خاضر 'present.' That of feminine nouns by adding خا= $\bar{a}tun$ to the singular, or, if the singular end in \bar{a} (= or =), by changing that letter into = : e.g. ملكة malakatun, 'possessions,' from ملكة malakat.
- 122. The following is an example of the declension of a masculine noun.

Rem. The genitive singular does not occur in Urdū. The accusative, with the tanwīn, frequently occurs, but always as an adverb. The final vowel of the nominative is always dropped

123. The Urdū borrows from the Arabic, not only the various plural forms, but also its *dual*. But the terminations of the dual and the regular masculine plural are

always those of the Arabic accusative case, with the final vowels dropped: e.g. جانِبَن jūnibain, 'two or both sides,' from جانِب 'side;' جانِب wālidain, 'father and mother,' 'parents,' from بالله 'father;' ناظرین 'father;' بالله nāzirīn, 'beholders,' from ناظرین 'beholding;' تخرین 'beholding;' ناظر from غاظر 'the last.'

124. The termination $-i - \bar{a}t$, of the regular plural of feminine nouns in Arabie, with the final vowel dropped, is also used in Urdū. It may be added: 1) to verbal nouns of any measure, and either gender: e.g.

لمالات لمسقاقل، 'perfections,' from the mase. كمالات لمسقاقل المسقلة للمسقلة المسلم المستقلة المسلم المسل

2) To verbal adjectives which are used in the plural as substantives: e.g.

'being.' كائِنات 'being.' أكائِنات 'being.' 'reated.' مُحَلُوقات 'makhlūkāt, 'creatures,' مَوْجُود 'round,' 'existing.' مَوْجُود ات

Rem. Plural nouns ending in āt are not necessarily feminine. Their gender is generally that of the singular from which they are formed: e.g. خيالات haivānāt, خيالات khavālāt, كمالات haivānāt, etc., are masculine because their singulars are masculine, and عالات ayāt, أَعَظُاهُا أَعْظُاهُا أَعْظُاهُا أَعْظُاهُا أَعْلِلْاً أَعْلِلْاللهُ اللهُ الل

occasionally added; e.g. صِفاتيس sifaten, from صِفت sifat, 'an attribute or quality.'

- 125. The *broken plurals* of the Arabic are of frequent occurrence, and are found in a variety of forms. The most important of these forms are:
- 1) انْعَال Singular triliterals of all forms may take this plural: e.g.

Triliterals in which the second radical (originally, or appears under the form 1, restore the original radical in the plural: e.g.

A few verbal adjectives of the measures فَعِيل and فَعِيل and مَاعِدل and مَاعِدل and ماعِدل also take this form in the plural: e.g.

2) غُول —The singular is generally a triliteral of one of the measures نُعُل فِعَل فِعَل فَعَل عَلَى دَعَل دَعْل دَعْل

amr, 'an affair,'		.umur أنور
'ilm, 'science,'	•	'ulum عَلُوم
burg, 'a tower,'		. burūj بروج
اسد asad. 'a lion,'		.usūd أُسُون
malik, 'a king,'		mulūk. مُكُوك

A few verbal adjectives of the measure فاعِل may take this form of plural: e.g.

3). أعلا This form is commonly used for the plural of verbal adjectives of the measure غيل when they apply to rational beings, and have not a passive signification, nor are derived from verbs of which the second and third radicals are identical. Some masculine adjectives of the measure فاعل (with the same restrictions as above) also take this form for the plural: c.g.

This form is commonly used for the plural of masculine adjectives of the measure فعيل, applicable to rational beings, and derived mostly from verbs of which the second and third radicals are identical, or the third radical is, or .e.g.

5) نَعْلَ نَعُل مِنْ Triliterals of the measures نَعْلُ مِنْ فَعُل مِنْ فَعْل مِنْ فَعْل and نُعْلَة may take this form of plural: e.g.

SINGULAR.	PLURAI.
saub, 'a robe,'	يْياب <u>s</u> iyāð.
baḥr, 'the sea,'	. biḥār.
jabal, 'a hill,'	jibāl. جِبال
rajul, 'a man,'	rijāl. رِجال
<u>الله المعالمة كتالت المالم كتالت المالم ال</u>	<u>kh</u> iṣāl. خِصال
رُقْعَن ruķu, 'a scrap of paper,'	'a letter,' رقاع riķā'.

6) انْعَال This form is used for the plural of verbal adjectives of the measure فاعِل not derived from verbs of which the third radical is , or ; as

7) أغيله —A form used for the plural of quadriliterals of which the antepenult letter is quiescent (a long vowel), especially nouns of the measures فعال and verbal adjectives of the measure فعيل derived from verbs of which the second and third radicals are identical, or the third radical is, or : e.g.

Rem. Form أَفْعِلُ (No. 4) is perhaps more commonly employed for the plural of adjectives of the measure .

8) فَعَائِل This form is used for the plural of quadriliterals (all originally feminine) of which the third letter

is servile or quiescent (a long vowel), whether they have the feminine termination (:) or not: e.g.

الباهماد. جزيره jazīra, 'an island,' جزيره jazā'ir. جزيره إبرائير jazā'ir. جزيره إبرائير إبرائي إلمائية إلمائية إلمائية إلمائيل إلمائيل خصائيل يلام يتفقى المفائيل risāla, 'a short treatise,' إسائيل shamā'il. فيمائيل shamā'il. دائل عامائيل dalā'il.

Rem. The form دلیل is said by some grammarians to be the plural not of دلیل, but of دلیل; but as dalīl is feminine, its plural is very properly dalā'il. The lexicons also give غرائب 'ajā'ib, and غرائب garā'ib as the plurals of غریب 'ajīb, عربیه garīb; but these are, properly speaking, the plurals of the feminine forms غریبه garība.

9) فَوَاعِل This is a common form of plural for substantives and adjectives of the measures فاعِل and فاعِل c.g.

خاتِم <u>kh</u> ātim, 'a signet ring.'	<u>kh</u> awatim. خواتم
ķālib, 'a mould,'	kawālib. قُوالِب
tābi', 'a follower,' 'an appositive,'	. tawabi توابح
خاص <u>kh</u> āṣṣ, 'a noble,' etc.,	ithawāṣṣ.
نابرر nadira, 'a rarity,'	.nawādir نوادِر
فارِّد ع fā'ida, 'advantage,'	fawā'id. فوَائِد
يَّ إِنْ kā'ida, 'a rule,'	kawāʻid. قواعد

Rem. The plural of Persian nouns also sometimes takes this form; e.g. كَوْلَيْدُ kawāgiz, from كَالْفَدُ kāgaz, 'paper.'

This form is used for the plural of quadriliteral substantives and adjectives (final s or not being counted as a letter), the consonants of which are all.

radical, or which are formed from triliteral roots by pre-fixing 1, co, or c, which are treated as radical letters: e.g.

The singulars are quinquiliteral substantives or adjectives (final s or r not included), of which the penultimate letter is a long vowel $(\bar{a}, \bar{u}, \text{ or } \bar{\imath})$: e.g.

ه ملاطس هالاقا، مالطس هالمعالم هالله الله الله هالله الله ا

 $\it Rem.$ The above forms are such as commonly occur in Urdū. Others of less frequent occurrence are:

a). فَعِيلَهُ فَعِيلَ وَعَالَ This is used for singulars of the measures وَعَعِلَ مِعَالَى and فَعُولُ , not derived from verbs which have و or ي for the third radical: as, رُسُل 'books,' from كِتَاب kitūb; كُتُب rusul, 'messengers,' 'prophets,' from رَسُول rasūl; مُدُن mudun, 'cities,' from مَدُن madīna.

¹ The first radical of the word $t\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}\underline{k}\underline{h}$ is alif with hamza, and when this is preceded by fatha and followed by an alif of prolongation, it passes into $w\bar{a}'o$; hence the plural form $taw\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}\underline{k}\underline{h}$ in lieu of $ta'\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}\underline{k}\underline{h}$.

- b). وَعَلَ The form of the singular is generally عَلَى : e.g. مِكم أَنْهُ الْهُ الْهُ اللهِ اللهُ الل
- e). فَعَلَة This is used to form the plural of verbal adjectives of the measure فَاعِل denoting rational beings, and not derived from verbs having o or for the third radical: e.g. طلبه talaba, 'students,' 'pupils,' from طالب talib; طالب jahala, 'ignorant persons,' from جاهِل
- d). فَاعِلُ —The singulars are verbal adjectives of the form فَعَلَة . denoting rational beings, and derived from verbs having و or و for the third radical: e.g. قاضِي بُنْ فَضَات , 'judges,' from قاضِي قاضِي wulāt (for وُلِيَت), 'governors,' from وَالِي walāt.
- e). فَعَالَ ـ فَعَالَ ـ اللهِ The singulars usually have the forms فِعَلَة وَعَالَ ـ فَعَالَ ـ فَعَالَ ـ فَعَالَ وَعَدَا فَعَلَى عَالَمَ وَعَدَا فَعَالَى عَالَمُ وَعَدَا فَعَالَى عَالَمُ وَعَدَا فَعَالَى عَدَالَ وَعَدَا فَعَالَى عَدَالَ وَعَدَا فَعَالَى عَدَالَ وَعَدَالَ وَعَدَا فَعَالَى عَدَالَ وَعَدَالَ وَعَدَالَهُ وَعَلَى وَعَلَى وَعَلَى وَعَلَى وَعَلَى اللهُ وَعَلَى وَعَلَى اللّهُ عَلَى اللّهُ وَعَلَى اللّهُ عَلَى اللّهُ عَلَى اللّهُ وَعَلَى اللّهُ وَعَلَى اللّهُ وَعَلَى اللّهُ وَعَلَى اللّهُ وَعَلَى اللّهُ عَلَى اللّهُ عَلَى اللّهُ اللّهُ عَلَى اللّهُ اللّهُ اللّهُ اللّهُ اللّهُ عَلَى اللّهُ اللّهُ اللّهُ اللّهُ اللّهُ اللّهُ اللّهُ اللّهُ اللّهُ عَلَى اللّهُ اللّ
- f). اَفْعُل —The singular is generally a noun of one of the measures أَفْعُل وَ أَسُلُ —The singular is generally a noun of one of the measures فَلْس e.g. فَعْل وَ فَعْل وَ فَعْل وَ فَعْل اللهِ فَعْل وَ فَعْل مَا فَعْلُ مَا فَعْل مَا ف
- g). فِعَلَان Used to form the plural of nouns of the measures فَعَلَل فَعَل اللهِ وَعَلَل عَمَل عَعَل عَعَل اللهِ وَعَلَل عَلَل عَعَل اللهِ وَعَلَل عَعَل اللهِ وَعَلَل اللهِ وَعَلَم الله وَعَلَم اللهِ وَعَلَم الله وَعَلَم اللهِ وَعَلَم اللهِ وَعَلَم اللهِ وَعَلَم اللهِ وَعَلَم اللهِ وَعَلَم اللهُ وَعَلَم الله وَعَلَم اللهُ وَعَلَمُ اللهُ وَعَلَمُ اللهُ وَعَلَمُ اللّه وَعَلَمُ اللّه وَعَلَم اللّه وَعَلّم اللّه وَعَلَم اللّه وَعَلّم اللّه وَعَلّم اللّه وَعَلّم اللّه وَعَلّم اللّه وَعَلَم اللّه وَعَلّم اللّه وَعَلّم اللّه وَعَلَم اللّه وَعَلَم اللّه وَعَلَم
- h). وَعَلَىٰ _ The singular is generally of the measure فَعَلَىٰ _ . وَعَلَىٰ _ . The singular is generally of the measure فَعَلَىٰ وَ . و.ع. وَعَلَىٰ وَ . و.ع. وَعَلَىٰ اللَّهِ عَلَىٰ اللَّهِ عَلَىٰ اللَّهِ عَلَىٰ اللَّهِ عَلَىٰ اللَّهِ عَلَىٰ اللَّهِ اللَّهِ عَلَىٰ اللَّهِ عَلَىٰ اللَّهِ عَلَىٰ اللَّهِ عَلَىٰ اللَّهُ عَلَىٰ اللَّهِ عَلَىٰ اللَّهُ عَلَى اللَّهُ عَلَىٰ اللَّهُ عَلَىٰ اللَّهُ عَلَىٰ اللَّهُ عَلَى اللّهُ ع
- i). فَعَالِكُة —Used to form the plural of substantives and adjectives of four, five, or more letters (principally words foreign to the Arabie), of which the penultimate letter is a long vowel: e.g. هلائكه malā'ika,

- 'angels,' from ملك malak (for مُلَّاث), 'an angel;' فلاسِفه falūsifa, 'philosophers,' from فَيْلسُوف failasūf.
- 126. From the preceding examples it is evident that one singular may have several forms of the broken plural, and even a sound or regular plural besides. In such cases, if the singular has several meanings, each of them often has a plural form peculiar to it. For example, in the bait means 1) a house, 2) a verse of poetry; in the former sense the broken plural is usually buyūt, in the latter "Light abyūt."
- 127. The broken plurals, being properly collective nouns, or singulars with a collective signification, often have regular plurals formed from them by the addition of the Arabic termination $= \bar{a}t$, or the plural terminations of the Hindī: e.g. يُبُوتات buyūtāt, 'families,' household expenses; امراؤن کو 'jawāhirāt, 'jewels: مراؤن کو 'umarā'onko, 'to nobles;' - hukhāmon-se, 'from those in authority.' For the same reason broken plurals are not necessarily of the same gender as the singulars from which they are formed; thus, of the feminine word - taraf, 'a side,' the plural اطراف atraf is masculine, and of the masculine word وَقْت wakt, 'time,' the plural اَوْقات aukāt is feminine. Moreover, in one or two instances these plurals are treated as singular in Urdū: e.g. ميرا احوال merā ahwāl, 'my circumstances, or case;' تجارت کا انساب tijārat-kā asbāb, 'trading commodities;' آپ كا الطاف أيساهي $\bar{a}p$ - $k\bar{a}$ all $\bar{a}f$ $ais\bar{a}$, 'Your majesty's kindness is (favours are) such.' The words asbāb and altāf, however, are also treated as plurals.

Rem. The usage of the two great centres of Urdū—Dehlī and Lucknow—differs somewhat in respect of these broken plurals; some

words being treated as singular in Dehlī, and plural in Lucknow. For example, the word جواهر jawāhir, is frequently used as a singular in the Bāg-o-bahār, but Lucknow authors always use it as a plural.

THE NUMERALS.

128. The Arabic numerals are occasionally used in Urdū, but rarely beyond ten or twelve.

THE CARDINAL NUMBERS.

129. The cardinals from one to ten are:

The numbers from eleven to nineteen are formed by prefixing the units to the ten; as احد عشر ahad 'ashar, 'eleven,' etc.

THE ORDINAL NUMBERS.

130. The ordinals from the second to the tenth take the form فَاعِل , the radical letters being the same as in the cardinals: e.g. ثالِث 'first,' ثالِث ' $s\bar{a}n\bar{n}$, 'second,' ثالِث ' $s\bar{a}lis$, 'third,' and so on. The feminines are formed by adding the termination s— to the masculine; as ثالث $s\bar{a}lis\bar{a}$, 'third;' the word آری anomal however, being of the measure s, and having the superlative signification, takes for its feminine رَاقِيلُ $s\bar{a}lis\bar{a}$ (§ 117).

131. The ordinals from the twelfth to the nineteenth inclusive are formed by adding the cardinal number عشر 'ten' to the preceding ordinals; the eleventh is formed by prefixing the word حادِي عشر to the cardinal عشر: e.g. عشر 'eleventh,' etc. $k\bar{a}d\bar{i}$ 'ashar, 'eleventh,' etc.

DISTRIBUTIVE NUMERALS.

132. Arabic Distributives are not common in $Urd\bar{u}$, and of the three measures used in Arabic, one alone is to be found; viz. فقال : e.g. ثلاث sulās, 'by threes.'

MULTIPLICATIVES.

are expressed by the Passive Participle of the second form, derived from the cardinal numbers: e.g. شقيل musannā, 'double,' 'a duplicate;' شيف musallus, 'threefold,' 'triple,' 'three-sided;' شيف murabba', 'fourfold,' 'square.' Single or simple is expressed by مُشْرَد mufrad, the pass. part. of the fourth form.

FRACTIONAL NUMBERS.

134. The fractions from a third up to a tenth are expressed by words of the measures فَعُل or فَعُل derived from the cardinals: e.g. ثَلَّتُ suls, 'a third,' نَتُ rub', 'a fourth,' خُمْس nisf.

v. The personal pronouns (عمير عمير zamīr).

135. The Personal Pronouns are two in number; namely مَيْن main, 'I,' and تُو tain, 'thou;' the form مَيْن however, though still current in Hindī, has become obsolete in Urdū. The place of the pronoun of the third person is supplied by the Demonstrative pronouns, chiefly by the Remote Demonstrative s, woh.

136. The personal pronouns present certain peculiarities of declension. The Formative singular of the first person is in mujh; that of the second itujh; the Agent and Genitive cases are generally formed from the Nominative; and the adjective affix $\[\] k\bar{a}$, which is used to form the genitive of nouns, is changed to 1, $r\bar{a}$, which in the plural has the connecting vowel \bar{a} prefixed to it. The plural Formatives are derived from the plural nominatives, by the addition of on, or, in the second person, hon: e.g. nom. pl. an, 'we,' Form. pl. hamon; nom. pl. تُم tum, 'you,' Form. pl. تُم tumhon; but the termination on is now always dropped, and the h of the termination hon is seldom used, except in the genitive, and the additional form of the dative case. This additional form ends in the singular in -c, and in the plural in ccn, which last termination is always added to the contumh. تُمي tumh.

Rem. The pronominal forms are clearly traceable to the Prākrit: eg.

have observed above, contractions of همون hamon and تُمهون tumhon. So in Prakrit we find were amha, as well as were amhanan, for the genitive. The dative forms _____ humen, etc., would appear to be but varieties of the Formative.

137. The personal pronouns are thus declined:

FIRST PERSON. main, 'I.'

Ncm. مَنِي main, 'I.' هم ham, 'we.'

Agent هم نه ham-ne, 'by me.' هم نه ham-ne, 'by us.'

Gen. مرا me-rā, 'my,' 'of me.' المارة ham-ārā, 'our,' 'of us.' Nem. • main, 'I.' Form. == mujh. Dut. (منكو) ham-ko, or ('to me,' المنكو) ham-ko, or ('to us,' us.' hamen,) 'to us,' us.' Mujh-se, 'from, by, me.' Loc. هم ميں ـ پر *ham-men*, -par, 'in, on, me.' میں ـ پر on, us.'

hamoi). ham-se, 'from, by, us.'

SECOND PERSON.

Abl. جب سے tujh-se, 'from, by,

Loc. يُ ميں _ پر tujh-mei, -par, تُم ميں _ پر tujh-mei, -par 'in, on, you.'

', 'thou.' تُو تُر Form. چغ tujh. پرتا تامهور tum or tumh (from تامهور)

' tum-se, 'from, by, you.' تُم سے

- Rem. a. The pronoun of the second person has no vocative case. The expression $\hat{\vec{j}}$ ai $t\bar{u}$ is only heard from the lips of Englishmen, or native Christians, who have learned it from the missionaries.
- Rem. b. The forms ميرا المسقة المين المين
- Rem. c. The Formatives جَبُ سَهِهُمْ بَسُهُمْ اللهُ ا
- 138. The addition of the particle هي $h\bar{i}$ (pl. هبن $h\bar{i}n$) to the pronouns gives them greater force, or, in some way, emphasizes them: e.g. ميرا هِي $main-h\bar{i}$, 'I,' ميرا هِي $mer\bar{u}-h\bar{i}$, 'mine,' 'mine alone.'

vi. the demonstrative pronoun (إِنَّسُمِ إِشَارِهُ).

139. The Proximate Demonstrative (إشارة قرِيب ishāra'ĕ karīb) is يب yĕh, 'this,' nom. pl. يب yĕh, or يب ye; the

Remote Demonstrative (اشارهٔ بعید ishāru'ĕ ba'īd) is أن wŏh, nom. pl. و wo, or و we. Both are used for the pronoun of the third person, but the remote demonstrative is the one more commonly employed.

Rem. The pronoun $y\ddot{c}h$ (Hindī yah) is derived from the Sanskrit $\ddot{\xi}$ \ddot{i} ; \dot{s}' $w\ddot{o}h$ (Hindī wah, Panjabī uh, Sindhī $h\bar{u}$), probably from the Sanskrit $\dddot{e}sva$ (see Bopp's Comp. Grammar, § 341). The Formatives are the contracted genitives (singular) of the Prākrit, with the initial vowel a of the genitive affix changed to i: e.g. $\dot{\psi}i$ = \ddot{u} assa Sanskrit \ddot{u} asya. In the old Formative $\dot{v}i$, a similar change of vowel occurs.

140. The demonstratives are declined as follows:

Nom. یہ یو پوئه, 'this,' 'he,' 'she,' 'it.' یہ یہ یو پوئه, or ye, 'these,' 'they.'

Form. انہوں – * انہ – اِن انہ اللہ is.

Agent انہوں نے ۔ اِل نے is-ne, or اِل نے اِل نے inhon-ne, or in-ne, in-ne, 'by him,' etc. 'by thee,' etc.

in-nc, 'by him,' etc. 'by thee,' etc. Gen. is- $k\bar{a}$, 'of this,' 'his,' etc. in- $k\bar{a}$, 'of these,' 'their,' etc.

Dat. منظم المنظم المنظ

Abl. اِس سے is-se, 'from, with, اِن سے in-se, 'from these,' etc. by, this,' etc.

Loc. إن ميں ـ پر is-men, -par, إن ميں ـ پر in-men, -par, 'in, on, this,' etc. these,' etc.

SINGULAR.

141. The forms marked with an asterisk can only be used when the demonstratives are employed as personal pronouns. As adjectives the demonstratives cannot be said to take any postpositions after them beyond those which are added to the substantives they define; in other words, they have but two forms, the Nominative and the إس آذمي كو formative: e.g. أس آذمي كو us admī-ko, 'to that man,' is kitāb men, 'in this book.' As adjectives کتاب میں moreover the demonstratives may also take the various nominative forms in the accusative: e.g. یه بات سُنگر yeh bat sunkar, 'having heard this matter.' As regards the Formatives أنه inh أنه inh إنه inhon and unhon, it may be observed that modern usage restricts the shorter forms to the Dative ending in $-\frac{1}{2}$ en and the longer to the Agent case. The forms in in and un of the singular Agent are obtained by assimilating the s of is and us to the n of the postposition ightharpoonup nc, and must not be confounded with the plural Formatives in and un, which may be used

in polite speech in any case of the singular in place of is and us; but where marked respect is to be indicated, the forms أنهون ني inhon and unhon-ng are employed for the third person singular in the Agent case.

- Rem. a. Forms now obsolete or rare are: a) بن wis and وس win, as the Formatives of so, in place of أَسَكَ تَلِيس (b); b) بنك تَلِيس (c); b) iske ta'īn and uske ta'īn, etc., for the dative and accusative of both pronouns.
- Rem. b. The Formatives of s_j with are commonly written (pronounced however us, un), in order to distinguish them from the Formatives of $y \in y \in h$, as, in the absence of vowel points, the two are likely to be confounded.
- Rem. o. The plural forms , e, e, e, , are of frequent occurrence, both in old and modern writings, and are preferred by the Musalmans of Northern India, and Urdū scholars generally, to the Hindī forms we are use.
- 142. The emphatic particle على آن (plural على تَهُ) is frequently added to the demonstratives, in order to point out the object with greater distinctness: e.g. يبي yčhi, 'this very,' 'the very same,' وُجِي 'wŏhī, 'that very,' إلي مين 'sī men, 'in this same,' or إلين مين 'inhūn men, 'in these very.'
 - 143. Like the demonstrative 42 yèh are declined:

VII. THE RELATIVE PRONOUN (إِنْهُم مُونْمُول).

jo or جُون jaun, 'who,' 'which,' 'what,' 'he who,' etc.

INGULAR.

Nom. و م و م و jo or jaun.

Form. جنه و jis (and, for the Agent, جنه , or بخنه , or jin).

or jinhon.

Rem. The repetition of the relative pronoun gives it an indefinite, or a distributive signification: e.g. $\neq jo\ jo$, whatever, Formative $jis\ jis$.

PLURAL.

Nom. سو or تونى so or taun. سو or تونى so or taun.

Form. تنهو tis (and, for the Agent, تنه, or بتنه, or بتنه tin). tinhon.

Rem. The correlative generally accompanies the relative as its complement; as أَمُ عَنْ مُو يُلِيكًا عَنْ أَمُ بُو مُنْ مُنْ اللهُ عَنْ أَمُ أَوْد jo charlegā so giregā, 'he who climbs will fall' (lit. 'whoever climbs, he will fall'). Modern usage prefers the pronoun عَنْ عَنْ مُنْ أَدُ in the place of the correlative. When the relative is repeated, so also is the correlative.

Rem. a. The forms marked with an asterisk cannot be employed when these pronouns are used as adjectives. In poetry, the interrogative, when used adjectively, occasionally employs the nominative $(\tilde{\lambda})$ for the Formative.

Rem. b. The pronoun = = the Prākrit जो jo, = Sanskrit **य:** yah; jaun = P. जं jam (the acc. of jo); uso = P. सो so; uin = P. तं tam (the acc. of so). Similarly kaun = a kam, the acc. of the Sanskrit a kim. The Formatives are the Prākrit genitives

with the feminine bases, i.e. with the vowel a changed to i: e.g. جِس jis = P. gen. sing. जस्स jassa = S. यस्य yasya; -jin = P. gen. pl. जार्ष jaṇam.

144. The interrogative kaun is applicable to both persons and things. A second interrogative pronoun $ky\bar{u}$, 'what?' is applicable to things only. It has no plural: in the singular it is declined as follows:

ليا kyū, 'what?'

Nom. کیا kyā.

Formative & kāhe.

The Formative کاهے $k\bar{a}he$ however is now rarely used, except in the genitive and dative cases, the Formative kis of the interrogative کون kaun being generally used instead. The genitive کاهے کا $k\bar{a}he$ - $k\bar{a}$ has the signification of 'of what (thing, or material?),' which however is more generally expressed by کسے kis $ch\bar{u}z$ - $k\bar{a}$. The dative $k\bar{a}he$ -ko always signifies, 'for what?' 'why?' and even this is more commonly expressed in Urdu by the interrogative adverbs kis-vaste, and kis-vaste, and kis-vaste, and kis-vaste, and kis-vaste

Rem. a. Like the English 'what,' كيا كبرة kyā may be used to express indignation, surprise, etc.; e.g. كيا كرتا هي kyā jawān-mardī, 'what art thou doing!' كيا جوالمردي kyā jawān-mardī, 'what valour or generosity!' In some instances it has the signification of 'how;' as kyā khāb, 'how excellent!' It may also be repeated, as is the English 'what,' to connect centences, or to convey a partitive signification. (See Syntax.)

Rem. b. The interrogative کیا kyā (for kiā) is derived from the Sanskrit কিন্দ kim: the form کاه kāhe is properly the Formative of the Hindī interrogative করা kahā, 'what?' which would appear to be derived from the Sanskrit का: kah.

X. THE INDEFINITE PRONOUNS (اسمائے تنگیر).

- 145. The Indefinite pronouns are of two kinds, simple and compound. The simple indefinite pronouns are کوئی $k\bar{v}\bar{\imath}$, 'some one,' 'some,' 'any,' 'a certain,' and 'some,' 'something,' 'any,' 'a few,' etc.
- 146. The pronoun کوئي ko'ī, is declined in the singular only; thus—

Sing. Nom. كِسُو ko'ī, 'some,' etc. Formative كسي kisī, or كوئي kisū.

The Formative کِسُو $kis\bar{u}$, however, is not so generally used at the present time as کِسی $kis\bar{\imath}$, which is applied to things as well as persons: e.g. کِسِي کِتاب میں $kis\bar{\imath}$ $kit\bar{\imath}$ $kit\bar{\imath}$ $kit\bar{\imath}$ $kit\bar{\imath}$ some book.'

The pronoun kuchh is indeclinable.

- Rem. a. The indefinite pronouns are both derived from the same source as the interrogatives: e.g. کوئي kõ'ī = Sanskrit कोऽपि ko'pi (kas + api); کُټې = S. कश्चित kachehit (किंचित kimchit).
- Rem. b. In poetry the Formative of كوڤي كوگ كه مُهُونَ as an adjective is occasionally identical with the nominative: e.g. مُعنِي عن حست جي كو جيل جاوُنگا شيخ الله عن مست بي وهند كار مَبْن مُسافِر هُوں كوئِي دِن كو چلا جاوُنگا mujh-se mat jī-ko lagā'o ki nahīn rahne-kā; main musāfir hūn, ko'ī din-ko chalā-jā'āngā, 'Set not your heart on me' (lit. 'unite not your soul with me'); 'I shall not stay; I am a traveller, some day I shall depart.'

'somewhat:' 3) by repetition and insertion of the negative na: e.g. کوئی نه کوئی نه کوئی $ko'\bar{\imath}$ na $ko'\bar{\imath}$, 'some one,' 'some one or other;' کجیه نه کجیه نه کجیه نه کجیه نه کجیه کرد.

Rem. The phrase چچ کا کچنج kuchh-kā kuchh is used to signify 'something very or quite different.'

نېيى nahūn after the simple indefinite pronouns we have كوئيي ko'ī nahūn, 'it is, or there is, no one or nobody,' نېيى kuchh nahūn, 'it is nothing.'

Rem. The word نبيس is both a negative particle and a negative substantive verb = نه نبيس ina hai, and as a verb it occurs at the end of a sentence: e.g. کوئي نبيس آيا ko'ī nahīn aya, 'anyone did not come,' i.e. 'no one came.' The same distinction is found in the sister dialects: e.g. Sindhī کوئيس آيا konhe = کوئيس آيا کوئيس آيا کوئيس

149. Compound indefinite pronouns are commonly formed by combining the simple indefinites with the relative بو jo, or one of the pronominal adjectives أَوْر other, 'other,' عبر dūsrā, 'other,' عبر sub, 'all,' عبر har, 'every.'

The compounds with کوئی $ko'\bar{\imath}$ are declinable: e.g.

The compounds with $t \in \mathcal{L}$ kuchh are indeclinable. Examples are:

XI. THE REFLEXIVE PRONOUN.

150. The Reflexive pronoun is $\bar{a}p$, 'self,' myself,' 'himself,' 'I myself,' etc. It has but one form for the singular and plural, and is declined as follows:

151. Besides the Formative آپ $\bar{a}p$, the form آپ $\bar{a}pas$ also occurs, but only in the genitive and locative plural: e.g. اَبِس کا $\bar{a}pas-k\bar{a}$, 'of, or pertaining to, ourselves, yourselves, or themselves;' آپس مین $\bar{a}pas-me\bar{n}$, 'among ourselves,' etc. The use of one or other of the personal pronouns depends on the context.

Rem. The Persian reflexive pronoun خود <u>kh</u>wud, is also commonly used in Urdū. Unlike آپ āp, however, it is generally used with the personal and demonstrative pronouns alone: e.g. مَيْن خُود main <u>kh</u>wud, 'I myself;' وي خُود we <u>kh</u>wud, 'they themselves.' To

152. $\bar{a}p$ is also very commonly used as the pronomen reverentiae, in both the second and the third person. When so used it is declined as follows:

NOM. SING. FORM. SING. $\bar{a}p$, 'your honour,' 'his honour.' $\bar{a}p$.

Thus it differs from the reflexive by taking for its genitive the form آپکر $\bar{a}p-k\bar{a}$, and for its dative the form آپکر $\bar{a}p-k\bar{a}$ alone. Like the English 'you,' though used in the singular, it is treated as a plural: c.g. آپ امبر هَبَّ $\bar{a}p$ amīr hain, 'your honour is (lit. are) a great man,' or 'you are a great man;' $\bar{a}p$ farmāte hain, 'his honour says' (lit. 'say').

Rem. Other words which, like بَمْ مَهِم مِهْ وَصَلَّمْ اللهُ عَدْاوَلْد عَمْهُ مَهُ وَالْوَالِمُ اللهُ عَدْاوَلْد بَعْمَ اللهُ وَالْوَالِمُ اللهُ عَدْاوَلْد بَعْمَ اللهُ اللهُ اللهُ اللهُ عَدْاوَلْد بَعْمَ اللهُ الل

of this slave,' and a wife is spoken of as قبرکے kabīla, 'family,' فبرکے ghar-ke ādmī, 'the household or family,' etc.

XII. RECIPROCAL PRONOUNS.

153. Reciprocal pronouns have no special form in Urdū. Reciprocity of feeling or action is expressed, as in English, by combining the pronominal adjectives ايك دُوسَرا ek, 'one,' and ايك دُوسَرا dūsrā, 'another:' e.g. Nom. ايك دُوسَرا ek dūsrā, 'each other,' 'one another,' Formative

154. The Possessive pronouns are the genitive cases of the personal, demonstrative, relative, interrogative, and reflexive pronouns: e.g.

These are all declined like other adjectives ending in \bar{a} ; e.g. mase. ميرا merā, fem. ميري merī; Form. sing. mase. ميري mere, Nom. and Form. pl. mase. ميري mere. The pronoun ميري apnā however is more commonly used as a substitute for the possessive pronouns merā, terā, and uskā than as a distinct reflexive adjective, and when so used it always refers to the principal subject, whether this be expressed or understood: e.g. اينا سبق سُنا apnā sabak sunā, 'repeat thy lesson,' (lit. 'cause me to, or let me, hear thy lesson');

main-ne apnā ghorā benchā, 'I have sold my horse' (lit. 'my horse has been sold by me').

Rem. The genitive of the adjective بن nij, 'own,' is also used in Urdū as a reflexive adjective: e.g. ميرا نجيا هاتهي merū nij-kū hāthī, 'my own elephant.'

XIV. PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

155. Under this head may be classed such adjectives as partake more or less of the nature of pronouns. They are of two kinds; *primitive* and *derivative*. The primitive are:

As adjectives they are all (with the exception of مُوسَّرا dūsrā and فُلانا fulānā) indeclinable; but as nouns they are (with the exception of دونوس ek, دونوس donon, کیٹی kai) declined in the plural: e.g. Nom. pl. عادر aur, Formative اور auron. The word سبب sab generally aspirates the b in the Formative: e.g. همینوس sabhon.

مونوں dūsrā, and ایک dūsrā, and دونوں dūsrā, and ایک dūsrā, and ایک dūsrā, and بُرت الله dūsrā, and ایک dāsrā, and ایک dūsrā, and بُرت الله bahut = Sanskrit बड़ bahu(२); سب عمل الله sab = S. सर्व sarva; کُلُونِ ka'ī and کُلُونِ ba'a, عَشْر بَهُ ba' yair, فَالْنَ fulān, فَالْنَ fulān, فَالْنَ kull are borrowed from the Arabic; کُلُونِ har and کُلُونِ chand from the Persian.

156. The derivatives are such adjectives as are formed from the original pronominal bases by means of the terminations $\bar{\upsilon}$ $tt\bar{a}$, $\bar{\upsilon}$ $tn\bar{a}$, and $\bar{\upsilon}$ $s\bar{a}$, the first two being used to form pronominal adjectives denoting measure or quantity, and the last such as denote kind or similitude. A long vowel in the base is shortened before the terminations $tt\bar{a}$ and $tn\bar{a}$ are added, and a short vowel in the base is lengthened to e or ai (in Urdū generally to ai) before the termination $s\bar{a}$ is added: e.g.

PRONOMINAL BASES.	ADJECTIVES OF QUANTITY.	ADJECTIVES OF KIND, ETC.	
ī, i or č.	לון ittā (ĕttā), 'this l'il itnā (ĕtnā), much.'	aisā, 'of this kind,' 'like this,' 'such.'	
ū or wa.	$\left\{ \begin{array}{c} \left\ \vec{v} \right\ ^{2} & utt\bar{a}, \\ \left\ \vec{v} \right\ ^{2} & utn\bar{a}, \end{array} \right\}$ 'that much.'	waisā, 'ofthat kind,' ويسا ' like that.'	
ji (fem. of ja ,	(يَّتِ jittā (jěttā),) 'as	jaisā, 'of which	
the base of jo).	jitnā (jřtnā),) much.	kind,' 'like which.'	
ti (fem. of the	(لقَّة tittā (těttā),) 'so	taisā, 'of what kind,'	
base of so).	(تِتْنا titnā (tčtnā), much.	'like that.'	
ki (fem. of	(لَكِّ kittā (kčttā),) 'how	kaisā, 'of what	
base of ka).	لنتا عند kitnā (kētnā), much.	kind?' 'like what?'	

CHAPTER III.

THE VERB (فِعَل).

- 157. The Urdū verbs may be conveniently divided into the two classes of Transitive (نعل مُتعدّى fe le muta addī, 'the verb that passes on' to an object), and Intransitive (נים fe le lāzimī, 'the verb that is confined to the subject'), the last including both active and neuter verbs, as to run, to sleep. For although there is but one conjugation, and the inflectional terminations are the same in all verbs, there is a marked difference in the formation of some of the tenses of the transitive verbs.
- 158. Transitive verbs have two Voices, viz. the Active and the Passive. The other verbal forms, such as Mood, etc., it will be more convenient to notice after we have spoken of the nouns and adjectives which are derived from the verbal root.
- 159. The root or crude form of a verb is found in the second person singular of the Imperative. It is in many cases used as an abstract verbal noun.

160. The verbal nouns are two in number:—

1). The Infinitive or Gerund (مصدر),

which is formed by adding to the verbal root the termination valentialises nar ai: e.g. Root valentialises chal, 'to move,' etc., Infinitive valentialises chal-nar a, 'to move or go,' 'moving or going.' The infinitive is the form in which verbs are usually given in

Dictionaries, so that the verbal root may always be known by dropping the termination $U n\bar{u}$.

Rem. In most instances the infinitive is, no doubt, the Sanskrit verbal noun ending in ana, modified, it may be, by the laws of transformation obtaining in the Prākrits. At the same time it is evident that the Sanskrit affix ana alone has been borrowed, and changed to $n\bar{a}$; for we find it joined to Persian and Arabic verbal nouns, and occasionally to other nouns and adjectives: e.g. لخويد kharīd-nā, 'to purchase' (from the Persian بخين badal-nā, 'to change or exchange' (from the Arabic كريد); لبدل garmā-nā, 'to get warm or heated' (from يُعاني); بنيانا ; paniyā-nā, 'to water,' 'to irrigate' (from يُعاني pānī, 'water'). It may be observed also that the Sanskrit verbal noun, with the final vowel dropped, is occasionally employed in Urdū (in Hindī frequently) as an abstract noun: e.g. 'chalan, 'going,' 'gait,' 'conduct,' etc.

which is also a Future Active Participle. It is formed by adding to the *inflected* infinitive, the termination $w\bar{a}l\bar{a}$: e.g. $w\bar{a}l\bar{a}$: chal-ne-w $\bar{a}l\bar{a}$, 'mover,' 'goer,' and, 'about to move or go.'

used, but more commonly in Hindī than in Urdū. In the former of these dialects it is also frequently added to the Sanskrit form of the verbal noun; as مرن هار مستماه maran-hār, 'about to die,' or 'one who is about to die.' The affix wālā corresponds to the Sanskrit वर्ष vala; المارا hārā, to the Sanskrit कार kāra, which, according to Dr. Trumpp, is first changed to khārā, and thence, by elision of k, to hārā.

The noun of agency is declined like other adjectives ending in \bar{a} (§ 45).

- 161. The infinitive as a gerund is used in the singular only, and is declined like masculine nouns ending in $1 \bar{a}$ (§ 42). But it is also frequently used as a *gerundive*, and then agrees with its substantive in gender and number.
- 162. The Participles are *three* in number; namely the Imperfect, Perfect, and Past Conjunctive. They are all derived from the verbal root.
 - 103. The Imperfect Participle (إِسْمِ حَالِيَه),

is formed by adding to the root the termination v $t\bar{a}$; as $chal - t\bar{a}$, 'moving,' 'going.'

164. The addition to the participle of the word أَمُونَا أَمُونَا لَهُ اللّٰهُ اللّٰهُ اللّٰهُ اللّٰهُ اللهُ الل

Rem. The affix U $t\bar{a}$ corresponds to the affix ञ्चत् at of the Sanskrit present participle. In Hindī the termination is at (strictly speaking, perhaps, atu, but the final vowel is never heard in pronunciation): e.g. चन्नत chalat = ______ chal-tā.

165. THE PERFECT PARTICIPLE

is formed by adding to the verbal root the termination $1 = \bar{a}$: in its formation the following rules are to be observed:

1) If the root ends in a consonant, the termination is in most cases added without any change being made; as

- 2) If the root end in one of the vowels $1 = \bar{a}$ or 0, a cuphonic y is inserted between it and the termination; as 0, is 0, in 0, is 0, in 0, in 0, is 0, is 0, is 0, is 0, is 0, is 0, in 0, is 0,
- 3) If the final letter of the root be the vowel $\underline{z} = \overline{\imath}$, the fatha of the termination (1-) changes the letter of prolongation \underline{z} into the consonant y: e.g. \underline{v}_i \underline{v}_i , 'drunk' (root \underline{v}_i).

166. The following participles are irregular:

PERF. PART.	INI INITIVE.	
يَيا kiyā, 'done.'	کر [°] نا kar - $n\bar{a}$, 'to do.'	
رَيَا diyā, 'given.'	e-nā, 'to give.'	
لَيَ liyā, 'taken.'	le-nā, 'to take.'	
mū'ā, 'dead.'	mar-nā, 'to die.'	
gayā, 'gone.'	اناج jā-nā, 'to go.'	
أهُوا hū'ā, 'been or become.'	هونا ho-nā, 'to be,' etc.	

But the forms λ karā, 'done,' and narā, 'dead,' are also occasionally used; and the form $j\bar{a}y\bar{a}$ is that invariably used in compounds, such as 'to go habitually or constantly,' to wish to go,' or 'to be about to go.'

Rem. It is incorrect to say that "the words $karn\bar{a}$ and $kiy\bar{a}$ are derived from kar and $k\bar{\imath}$, two different forms of the Sanskrit root kri, and the words $marn\bar{a}$ and $m\bar{u}'\bar{a}$, from mar and $m\bar{u}$, two different forms of the Sanskrit root mri," etc.; for there can be little doubt that though

the affix \bar{a} (which corresponds to the Sanskrit affix ta) is used in forming perfect participles—e.g. אבי \underline{kharid} - \bar{a} , 'purchased,' שבי \underline{badl} - \bar{a} , 'exchanged'—yet the Hindī participles are for the most part derived bodily from those of the Sanskrit (just as the infinitives are from the Sanskrit verbal noun in ana), through the medium of the Prākrit, and the change of form is due to the laws which obtain in the latter language: e.g. אוֹב kiyā (for kia) = P. (किसो kio = S. इत krita; יש mu'a = P. मुझो mu'a = S. मृत mrita; אוֹנ gaya (for gaa) = P. गमो gaa = S. गत gata. The verb שב jana, from the Sanskrit root या ya, 'to go,' is defective, its perf. part. having been formed in Prākrit from a distinct root गम gam, 'to go.'

Rem. The imperfect and perfect participles, when compounded with $\hbar \bar{u}'\bar{a}$, may also be used as nouns: e.g. ميرا دِيَا مُوا merā diyā $\hbar \bar{u}'\bar{a}$ (and, elliptically, مبرا دِيا مسلام), 'what has been given by (lit. of) me,' 'my giving or gift.'

168. The imperfect and perfect participles are declined like other adjectives ending in $1-\bar{a}$, with a slight difference in the feminine plural, which takes a contracted form of the nom. pl. of feminine nouns ending in \bar{i} : e.g.

	MASCULINE.		FEMININE.	
	Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.
Nominative	پلا chalā,	چلے chale.	چلي chalī,	جلِس chalīn.
Formative -	بلے chale,	جلے chale. ا	جلِي chalī,	جلِيں chalīn.

But the euphonic y of such perfect participles as $l\bar{a}y\bar{a}$, $soy\bar{a}$, is generally dropped in all the inflected forms:

e.g. لائي $l\bar{u}e$, سوئيس $l\bar{u}i$, سوئيس so $i\bar{n}$. The same change takes place in the inflected mase, forms of such participles as يِيا $piy\bar{a}$, نِينَا $diy\bar{a}:e.g$. ييئي $p\bar{i}'e$; but in the feminine the two long vowels \bar{i} , \bar{i} , are generally contracted into one; as يي $p\bar{i}$ for ييئي $p\bar{i}'\bar{i}$; كيئي $h\bar{i}'\bar{i}$.

169. In the compound participles formed with $h\bar{u}^{\dot{\alpha}}$, both parts of the compound are inflected in the same way, but the plural termination of the feminine is usually added to the last, λ_{e} , alone: e.g. λ_{e} , λ_{e

Rem. As the plural is obvious from the termination of the last part of the compound, the addition of the same termination to the first part also is unnecessary, and is now rarely made. We occasionally meet with the full plural termination $a\hat{n}$, as $chaliya\hat{n}$, but current usage is averse to the form.

170. The addition of the emphatic particle $k\bar{l}$ to the locative of the imperfect participle (with the postposition suppressed), gives it the force of an adverb : e.g. $k\bar{l}$ challe- $k\bar{l}$, 'in the very act, or on the instant, of moving.'

THE PAST CONJUNCTIVE PARTICIPLE (ماضِي معَطُوف).

171. This participle, which is indeclinable, may take the form: 1) Of the simple root; as chal, 'having moved or gone; 2) of the root with the addition of one of the affixes chal-

Rem. a. We occasionally meet with the form کرکر kar-kar, as کرکر chal-kar-kar; this, however. is now generally condemned as barbarous.

Rem. b. The conjunctive participle of the verb $\bigcup \overline{1}$ $\bar{a}n\bar{a}$, 'to come,' takes the forms $\overline{1}$ $\bar{a}n$, $\bigcup \overline{1}$ $\bar{a}nkar$, etc., besides the regular forms $\overline{1}$ \bar{a} , $\overline{1}$ $\bar{a}kar$, etc.

Rem. c. The affixes e and ke both spring from the Prākrit form ia of the Sanskrit affix ja, which is used to form indeclinable past participles: ia transposed = ai = e; in the case of ke, however, ia is first changed to ja, je (the form current in Sindhī), and j is then changed to k. In the first or root form of the participle the affix e is dropped.

GENDER, NUMBER, PELSON.

172. The Urd \bar{u} verb has *two* genders, the masculine and feminine; *two* numbers, the singular and plural; and three persons in each number.

173. There are three moods; namely the Indicative, Imperative, and Subjunctive or Conditional, which is also the Optative. The Indicative and Subjunctive will be noticed in connection with the tenses.

- 174. The second person singular of the Imperative is, as has already been observed, the root or crude form of the verb. The second person plural is formed by adding to the singular the termination -o; as -o; as -o, 'go thou,' -o; as -o, 'go you.' It is identical with the second person plural of the Aorist, from which tense the other persons of the Imperative are taken.

ho, 'be thou,' plural هو ho, 'be ye.' The forms ديو de'o and هيو ho'o are now regarded as provincial and barbarous.

Rem. The terminations of the Prākrit imperative are—Sing. u or a, $\bar{a}hi$, etc.; pl. dha or ha: the first of these is dropped in Hindī, and the plural termination ha is changed to a by elision of a and compensatory lengthening of the final vowel.

THE PRECATIVE.

176. There is another form of the Imperative which is properly a Precative, but which is also commonly used in polite speech for the Imperative. It is formed by adding to the verbal root the termination ____ iye for the singular, and جير iyo for the plural; as جلسے chaliye, 'please go,' or simply 'go;' چلو chaliyo, 'go you.' But at the present time the two forms are both commonly employed in both the singular and the plural, the only difference between them being, that the form ending in iye is always used with the pronomen reverentia ap, and usually refers to present time; whereas that ending in iyo is used with the pronouns \bar{t} $t\bar{u}$ and tum, and is generally a future imperative: eg. آپ چلیے ap chalige, 'please come, or come, Sir, or Sirs;' [w] is dirukht-ke pas na jā'iyo, 'near this دِرخُت کے باس نجائِدو tree thou shalt not go; کرنے کا 'زtree thou shalt not go hargiz inke bechne aur āzād karne-kā irāda na إراده نه كيحييه kījiyo, 'never form the design of selling or setting free these (animals).' The form ending in iyo is also frequently

¹ Mr. Etherington (*Hindī Grammar*, p. 78) observes that it is incorrect to term the precative ending in *iyo* the plural of that ending in *iyo*, and in this opinion he is supported by native scholars; but though the opinion of these is invaluable in respect of the usage and signification of words, it is utterly untrustworthy where their origin or derivation is concerned, especially in Hindī forms. By comparison with the same form in the sister dialects—Panjābī, Sindhī, etc.—we obtain conclusive evidence of the form ending in *iyo* being originally the plural of that ending in *iyo*.

Rem. a. The termination iye is derived from the increment ija or ijja, which is inserted between the root and the terminations in the present, imperative, and definite future of Prākrit verbs (Prākrit-Prakāśa, ed. Cowell, p. 30 of Introduction). This increment is traced by Lassen to the Sanskrit precative. In Hindī and Urdū also the Aorist frequently takes the form of the Precative for the three persons of the singular, and adds nasal n thereto for the plural: e.g. مُنَّمُ قَتُلُ كُلُّ أَمُّ اللَّهُ اللَ

177. If the root end in $z = \bar{i}$ or e, the letter j is inserted between it and the affixes of the Precative, and $majh\bar{u}l$ e of the root is changed to the ma'ruf \bar{i} before the affixes are added: e.g. $p\bar{i}jiye$, from the root $p\bar{i}$, 'to drink;' $p\bar{i}jiye$, from the root $p\bar{i}$, 'to drink;' $p\bar{i}jiye$, from the root $p\bar{i}$, 'to give.' Instead of inserting $p\bar{i}$ however, the initial $p\bar{i}$ of the affixes may be dropped, and $p\bar{i}$ changed to $p\bar{i}$; as $p\bar{i}$, $p\bar$

honā,¹ 'to be or become,' and مُوجِي marnā, 'to die,' also insert j: e.g. مُرنا

¹ Forbes and others after him state that "when the root ends in $\bar{\imath}$ or \bar{u} , j is inserted for cuphony," etc. But they give no example of a verbal root ending in \bar{u} , which forms its precative thus, and we doubt much whether a single example could be given, unless it be the verb $m\bar{u}n\bar{a}$, which is rarely if ever used. Indeed, $m\bar{u}jig$, and $m\bar{u}'\bar{a}$ are generally regarded as the precative and perfect participle, not of $m\bar{u}n\bar{u}$, but of $m\bar{a}n\bar{u}$. Examples of verbal roots ending in \bar{u} are chhun \bar{u} , 'to touch,' and ch $\bar{u}n\bar{u}$, 'to drip,' but these would certainly not take j in the precative: e.g. chh $\bar{u}'ig$, not chh $\bar{u}jig$. The rule would be equally incorrect if o were substituted for \bar{u} , for hon \bar{u} is the only verb of this class that forms its precative with jig.

hūjiye, مُوجِي mūjiye. This last, however, also takes the regular forms مريه mariye, مريو mariye.

Rem. a. The form of the rost employed in the precative, it may be observed, is generally that which occurs in the perfect participle, and hence we find $k\bar{\imath}jiye$, $k\bar{\imath}jiye$, $k\bar{\imath}jiye$, $k\bar{\imath}jiye$, as the precatives of $k\bar{\imath}jiye$, it do,' the forms kariye and kariyo, though occasionally used, being regarded as unchaste. A remarkable exception to this rule, however, is the precative $j\bar{a}iye$, of the verb $j\bar{a}n\bar{a}$, 'to go.'

Rem. b. The affixes بنو iye and الم نوب iyo, are frequently written بنو iyo, or بنو iyo, are frequently written بنو i'o : e g. بنو chali'e, or جلئے chali'e; and when the root ends in ā, the initial vowel (i) of the affixes may be elided; as فرمائیے farmā'iye, or فرمائیے farmāye.

179. The addition of the termination $g\bar{a}$ to the precative ending in *iye* gives it a fulure signification: e.g. $g\bar{a}$ $g\bar{a}$

THE TENSES.

180. The tenses in common use, and which are those allowed by native grammarians, are nine in number, exclusive of the Imperative. Of these tenses four relate to an imperfect act; viz. 1) the Aorist (مشروع أله المنابع الم

Future Perfect or Past Potential مانيي شكي māzī shakkī). Two of these tenses, viz. the Aorist¹ and the Future Perfect, are common to the Indicative and Subjunctive Moods (though the latter is rarely used in the Indicative); the rest pertain to the Indicative Mood. One tense, namely the Past Conditional or Optative, is peculiar to the Subjunctive Mood.

181. The tenses rarely used, and which the native grammarians do not even notice, need not detain the student here: they will be explained hereafter.

FORMATION OF THE TENSES.

- a) THE SIMPLE TENSES.
- 182. The simple tenses of the Active Voice are three; namely, the Aorist, the Past Absolute or Indefinite, and the Past Conditional or Optative.
 - 1) THE AORIST.
- 183. The Aorist is the only tense that is formed by means of inflectional terminations.² These are:
- ¹ It is inexplicable to us how Mr. Etherington can say (Hindī Grammar, p. 76),
 'The so-called against of the Hindī is not indicative at all; for it never simply asserts, except in ungrammatical patois.' He must surely have repeatedly heard the expressions kyā karūn, 'What am I to do?' kahān jā'un, 'Where shall I go?' khindā jāne, 'God knows?' And he should have known that the against is commonly employed in the indicative mood in proverbs e.g. init-chare knitā kāte, 'the dog bites (or will bite) one mounted on a camel.' To call the tense the prospective conditional is to give it a new name, which, so far from being an improvement on the Prākrit present indefinite, which (since the Sanskrit potential has disappeared from the Prākrits) also expresses some of the significations of the potential, and hence is used in both the indicative and subjunctive moods.
- ² The agrist corresponds to the present of the Präkrit, the personal terminations of which tense are:

INGULAR.

1st person $\bar{a}mi$ (S. $\bar{a}mi$).

2nd ,, asi (S. asi).
3rd ,, a-di, at (S. a-ti).

PLURUL. $\{\bar{a}mo, \bar{a}mu, \bar{a}ma\}$ S. $\bar{a}mah$.

aha (S. a-tha).

a-nti (S. a-nti).

Comparing these terminations with those of the Hindi, we perceive that, in the

singular. 1st person ون - ūnُ.			PLURAL.	
			یں $-e\dot{n}$.	
2nd	,,	و.	.ه –و	
3rd	,,	ي- e. ه	بن – بي en.	

They are added to the verbal root, and are the same for both genders.

- 184. If the root end in a vowel, certain euphonic changes may be necessary before the terminations are added to it: e.g.
- 1) If the vowel be $i = \bar{a}$, j = 0, or $j = \bar{i}$, the letter j w may be inserted between it and the terminations j = e and j = e, (thou or he) 'will go;' حبوبی j = e, (we or they) 'will live.' In the case of the verb 'will hona, 'to be,' we find, moreover, that the vowels of the terminations are frequently elided, so that we have the forms: 1st person sing. خبوبی ho- \bar{u} , or خبوبی how, or خبوبی how, or خبوبی how, otc.

Rem. In Urdū, however, w is not very generally inserted, hamza between the vowels being preferred; e.g. $j\bar{u}'u\dot{n}$, $j\bar{u}'u\dot{n}$, so'e, so'e, $j\bar{u}'e$; and the form $a_{e}\dot{u}$ ho' $u\dot{n}$ is obsolete.

2) If the root end in $\underline{\hspace{0.1em}} = e$, a euphonic w may be inserted, as in the case of the other vowels, but the usual practice is, as has been shown in the case of the imperative (§ 175) to drop the root vowel in all the persons: e.g. the acrist of $den\bar{a}$, 'to give,' is $d\bar{a}\bar{a}n$, 'I give or shall give;' $den\bar{a}$, (thou or he) 'will give' e.g. den, (we or they) 'will give.'

.atter, the consonants have all been clided (but the lotters m and n have left their mark in the form of the anuscara or masal), and the vowels a, i of the second and third persons sing, and the 3rd pers, pl have coalesced into c. In the first person the vowel \tilde{a} has been changed to \tilde{n} , and final i has been clided. In the second person \tilde{a} has been clided, and a lengthened to a.

Rem. a. The personal pronouns may either precede or follow the verb, or they may be omitted. But if any stress is to be laid on the person, the proper pronoun must be expressed, and be placed before the verb.

Rem. b. The acrist frequently takes the form of the precative: e.g. $ky\bar{a}$ $k\bar{i}$ -jiye, kuchh ban nah \bar{i} n part \bar{i} , what shall I do? nothing is of any avail; where $k\bar{i}$ jiye = karain. The subject will be noticed in the Syntax.

2) THE PAST INDEFINITE.

185. The Past Indefinite or Absolute is formed from the perfect participle, which, in the case of an intransitive verb, is inflected to agree in gender and number with its subject or nominative; but if the verb be transitive, a passive construction is employed, the actor is put in the Agent case and the object of the action becomes the subject or nominative, with which the participle agrees in gender, etc. For example, instead of saying directly, 'the king killed a tigress,' the Urdū uses the form, 'by the king a tigress was killed' (راجاني شبرني ماري الجاني ماري) rājā-ne shernī mārī). The same construction is employed in all such tenses of the active voice of a transitive verb as are composed of the passive participle, provided the object of the act have the nominative form; but the object may take the dative form, in which case the participle is never inflected.

Rem. This construction is derived from the Sanskrit through the Präkrit, and would appear to be preferred in Sanskrit to the active construction. In Präkrit it is very commonly employed, few traces of the Sanskrit preterite tenses remaining in the dialects thereof. The Hindī departs from the Präkrit, however, in discarding all inflectional terminations, which in the Präkrit were optionally used.

3) THE PAST CONDITIONAL.

186. The Past Conditional or Optative is formed from the imperfect participle, which is inflected to agree in gender and number with the subject or nominative.

Rem. This tense appears to perplex English writers on Urdū grammar greatly. It is called 'The Indefinite,' 'The Present Indefinite,' 'The Retrospective Conditional,' etc., and rendered mostly by the English present. Now the fact is, it is not a present tense at all, but a past subjunctive. The error is probably due to the fact that the present tense is sometimes used elliptically without the auxiliary, and so has the appearance of the conditional; but the two should not be confounded. The conditional was, in all probability, a compound tense originally.

b) THE COMPOUND TENSES.

1) The Future.

187. The Future is formed by adding to the Aorist the participle $g\bar{a}$ (a contraction of $gu\bar{a}$, whence $guy\bar{a}$, 'gone'), which is inflected to agree with the nominative in gender and number. The Future is therefore properly a Desiderative, or Intentional: e.g. مَنْ حَلُونًا main chalūngā, 'I shall go or move,' is literally, 'I am gone (that) I move,' i.e. 'I wish to move,' or 'I am going to move;' and hence we occasionally find it so used: e.g. مَنْ دَيْكُونَا عَامِنَا عَالَمُ اللهُ اللهُ مَنْ دَيْكُونَا عَامِنَا عَامِنْ عَامِنَا عَامِنَا عَامِنْ عَامِنَا عَامِيْ عَامِنَا عَلَى عَلَ

188. The remaining compound tenses (with the exception of the Future Perfect) are composed of the imperfect or perfect participle and the following auxiliaries, which are also used alone to express simple existence.

If the subject or nominative be feminine, تها thū takes the feminine termination: e.g. sing. تَجِين thī, pl. تَجِين thī، pl. تَجِين

Rem. These are not "anomalous formations derived from hona," as Professor Williams calls them, for honā springs from the Sanskrit $bh\bar{a}$, to be or become,' the Prākrit form of which is ho or hura; whereas the forms $\lambda h\bar{a}h$, etc., are derived from the present tense of the Sanskrit as, 'to be:' e.g. $h\bar{u}h = P$. amhi = S. asmi; hai = P. asi = S. asi, and so on, the process of transformation in Hindī being analogous to that of the terminations of the aorist; h, however (into which the s also of asi, etc., is changed), being in no instance elided, but transposed. The form $\lambda \bar{a}$ thā is traceable to the Sanskrit root $sth\bar{a}$, 'to stand,' which is used even in Sanskrit as a substantive verb with the sense of 'to be.'

2) The Present Imperfect.

189. The Present Imperfect is formed by adding the first of the above auxiliary tenses to the imperfect participle of a verb: e.g. masc. چلتي challā hūn, fem. چلتي challā hūn, 'I am going.'

Rem. a. The present tense is sometimes formed by adding the same auxiliary to the aorist of a verb; as جُلُوں مُوں chalūn hūn, 'I go or am going.' This form, which is properly an indefinite present, was at one period general; numerous instances of its use occur in the poets,

and it is still very common in the tract of country extending from Agra to Sindh; but in other parts of Northern India it is now seldom used, except by the uneducated.

Rem. b. The termination $\[\] g\bar{a}$ is occasionally added to the auxiliary in the present and present perfect tenses, and even when it is used independently, sometimes intensifying, but often without affecting the sense; for example, $\[\int_a haig\bar{a} = \int_a hai; \int_a haig\bar{a} = \int_a hail\bar{a} hai. \]$ Such forms, it may be observed, are regarded as unchaste (gair fasih) by native scholars.

3) THE PAST IMPERFECT OR CONTINUOUS.

190. This tense is formed by adding the auxiliary تنا thā to the imperfect participle of a verb: c.y. mase. مسن جلتا تها main chaltā thā, fem. چلتا تها main chaltā thī, 'I was going.' It frequently denotes a habitual or repeated act in past time, as 'I used (to go),' etc., and when used in this sense the auxiliary, thā, is often omitted, so that the tense then assumes the form of the Past Conditional.

4) THE PROXIMATE OR PRESENT PERFECT.

 king has killed three tigresses;' (عنجنكو or) أس لَتَّكِ نَهُ عَبَاكُو or) مارا هي larke-ne mujhko (or mujhe) mārā hai, 'that boy has beaten me.' When the object of the act is represented by a personal pronoun, the participle will always remain uninflected, since such pronouns admit of the dative form of the accusative alone.

5) THE REMOTE OR PAST PERFECT.

192. The Past Perfect is formed by adding the auxiliary تها thā to the perfect participle of a verb: e.g. مَسْ چلا thā to the perfect participle of a verb: e.g. المناه ا

6) THE FITURE PERIECT, OR PAST POTENTIAL.

gone.' If the verb be transitive, the construction is the same as in the case of other tenses composed of passive participles.

Rem. It is a mistake to say that this tense "is not of very frequent occurrence," as all English writers on Hindī and Urdū grammar do. It is commonly employed, both colloquially and in writing; not however as a Future Perfect, but as a Past Potential, expressing the possibility, or uncertainty, of an act.

CONJUGATION.

- 194. We now proceed to conjugate three verbs: viz. the transitive-active verb Likhnā, 'to write;' the intransitive-active verb عِلْنا chalnā, 'to move or go,' and the substantive verb U. honā, 'to be.' The masculine forms alone will be given; it will therefore be borne in mind that, in the Future and all tenses composed of the imperfect and perfect participles, the final vowel \bar{a} of the sing, is changed to \bar{i} for the feminine, and the final vowel e of the plural to $\tilde{i}n$. The verbal nouns and adjectives are declined like other nouns and adjectives ending in \bar{a} . The arrangement of the moods and tenses differs but slightly from that found in existing grammars; it is necessary therefore to again direct attention to the fact that the Conditional, though classed with the tenses derived from the imperfect participle, is a past tense of the subjunctive mood. The Imperative, properly speaking, consists of the second person alone, and this is all that is given; the remaining persons are

identical with those of the Aorist, from which indeed they are borrowed.

I. ROOT 40 likh, 'to write.'

Infinitive or Gerund, لَيْنَا likhnā, 'to write,' 'writing.' Noun of Agency, and كنف والا ل lilline-wala, 'writer,' 'about Future Act. Participle, to write. Imperfect, Likhtā, 'writing.'

Perfect, Wilkha, 'written.'

Progressive, اِلْكَيْمَةُ لَا اللَّهُ اللّ

who is in the act of writing.'
Passive, الكِمَا وَلَمُ اللَّهُ اللَّالَّا اللَّهُ الللَّهُ اللَّهُ اللَّهُ الللَّهُ اللَّهُ اللَّهُ اللَّهُ اللَّهُ اللَّهُ اللَّهُ ا

instant, of writing.'

TENSES FORMED FROM THE ROOT.

1). The Imperative.

SINGULAR. PLUBAL.

تم لِكَهُو لِكَهُ tā likh,¹ 'write thou.' مَم لِكَهُو tā likh,¹ 'write thou.'

Precative, لكهيو likhiye, 'write, or كهيو likhiye, 'write, or كهيو likhiyo, 'you shall or will write.'

Future الكينيك likhi'egā, 'you will be pleased to write.'

¹ It should be observed that there is no necessity to express the personal pronoun in the Imperative, the Aorist, and the Present Perfect (and, in the case of intransitive verbs, in the Past Pertect, and Past Potential), unless any stress is to be laid on the person; and that, in all the tenses, the pronouns, if expressed, as commonly follow as precede the verb.

2). The Aorist.

'I write, or shall write, or should write,' etc.

main likhūn. tū likhe. تُو لِكَهِي ي woh likhe.

هم لِکهیں ham likhen. tum likho. تُم لِکھو . we likhen عي لك

3). THE FUTURE.

'I shall write,' etc.

main likhūngā. ا كيسكا s. woh likhena.

مَيْن لِكُهُو main likhūngā. هم لِكَيِمنَكُ ham likhcinge. هُم لِكَيِمنَكُ tū likhegā. تُو لِكَهِيكًا tum likhenge. وَد لِكَهِيكًا wöh likhengā.

TENSES FORMED FROM THE IMPERFECT PARTICIPLE.

1). THE PAST CONDITIONAL OR OPTATIVE.

'Had I written,' or 'Did I write,' or (Would that) 'I had written,' etc.

main likhtā. tū likhtā. عن عن woh likhta.

ham likhte. هم لكيت tum likhte. تم لكيت we likhte. وي لكيت

2). The Present Imperfect.

'I am writing,' etc.

هم لِكَهْت هَيْن لِكَهْت هُيْن لِكَهْت هُون main likhta hūn. هم لِكَهْت هُيْن لِكَهْتا هُون ta likhta hai. ثم لِكَهْت هُي tum likhte ho. وي لِكَهْت هَيْن wõh likhtā hai.

3). THE PAST CONTINUOUS OR IMPERFECT.

'I was writing,' and 'I used to write.'

هم لِكَهْت تهي الله main likhta tha. هم لِكَهْت تهي الله main likhta tha. هم لِكَهْت تهي الله tum likhte the. تُم لِكَهْت تهي يون لله تها woh likhta tha.

TENSES FORMED FROM THE PASSIVE PARTICIPLE.

1). THE PAST ABSOLUTE OR INDEFINITE.

'I wrote,' or lit. 'By me (it) was written,' etc.

stygt Lak.

المع نے لکھا main-ne likhā.

المع نے لکھا ham-ne likhā.

المع نے لکھا tū-ne likhā.

المع نے لکھا tum-ne likhā.

المع نے لکھا tum-ne likhā.

المع نے لکھا unhon-ne likhā.

2). The Proximate of Present Perfect.

'I have written,' lit. 'By me (it) has been written,' etc.

main-ne likhā hai. مم نے لِکنا کمی الله main-ne likhā hai. مم نے لکنا کمی tū-ne likhā hai. مرنے لکنا کمی tum-ne likhā hai. unhoù-ne likhā hai. اُنهُوں نے لکھا أَن بے لِکھا أَسْنے or اُن بے لِکھا أَن بِي لِکھا أَن بِي لِکھا أَن بِي اِلْکھا

35. THE REMOTE OF PAST PERFECT.

'I had written,' let. 'By me (it) had been written.'

4). THE FUTURE PLRIECT, OR PAST POTENTIAL.

'I shall have written,' (more commonly) 'I may have written,' etc.

main-ne likhā hogā. حم نے لکھا حوگا ham-ne likhā hogā. حم نے لکھا حوگا tā-ne likhā hogā. تم نے لکھا حوگا tā-ne likhā hogā.

unhoù-ne likhā أنيوں نے لِكنها هوگا ما us-ne or أَن نے لِكنها هوگا unhoù-ne likhā un-ne likha hogā.

- 1 It will be understood that the participle takes this form only when the object of the act is in the sing, mase,, or in the form of the dative; in every other case it will be inflected to agree with the object in gender and number: e.g. مَيْن نِي حِنْبِي main-ne ch.!:hī likhī, 'I wrote a letter.'
- The form is un-ne of the Agent case may also be used; but as this form is generally used for the sing. (not "to indicate respect," as is generally supposed, see إن الله 141), the form أنهور ني unhon-ne is commonly employed for the plural.

Rem. a.—The termination $U g\bar{a}$ of hogā may even be dropped, in which case the signification is invariably that of the Past Potential: e.g. " us-ne likhā ho, 'he may have written.' أُسْنِي لِكَهَا هو

Rem. b.—If the root ends in a vowel, the conjugation is effected in the same way: the perfect participle is formed by inserting a cuphonic y between the root and the termination \bar{a} (this y, however, being generally dropped again in the masc. pl. and in the fem.), and certain optional forms of the Aorist occur (§ 184): c.g.

Root کے khā, 'to eat.' Perf. part. کے khāyā, 'caten.'

AORIST.

PLURAL.

PLURAL.

price main khā'ān.

price main khā'ān.

khāwen.

khāwen.

tum khā'o.

woh khā'e or khāwe.

woh khā'e or khāwe.

woh khā'e or khāwe.

PAST ABSOLUTE.

un-hon-ne khāyā. أنهون نے كمايا

H. ROOT حل chal, 'to move, or go.'

Infinitive or Gerund, حِلْنا chal-nā, 'to go,' 'going.'

Noun of Agency, and ولله والا و ohalne wālā, 'goer,' 'about Future Active Participle,

Imperfect

chal-ta, 'moving or going.'

Perfect \(\subseteq \change \

Progressive اِنْ دُوا مُلْكُ دُولُولُو اللَّهِ اللَّهُ اللَّهِ اللَّهِ اللَّهِ اللَّهِ اللَّهِ اللَّهُ اللَّا اللَّهُ اللَّا اللَّهُ اللَّا اللَّالِي اللَّاللَّا الللَّهُ اللَّهُ اللَّهُ الللَّهُ اللَّهُ اللَّهُ اللَّهُ ا

Past Perfect چلاهُوا chalā hū'ā, 'become moved,' 'gone.'

Adverbial چِلْتَ هِي ehalte-hī, 'in the very act, or on the instant of moving,' etc.

THE IMPERATIVE.

BINGULAR.

tum chalo, 'go you.' تُم چنو tū chal, 'go thou.' Precative, چلیے chaliye, 'go, or be چلیے chaliyo, 'you shall or pleased to go.'

Future Line chali'egā, 'you will be pleased to go.'

THE AORIST.

I go, or shall go, or should go,' etc.

main chalūn. tū chale. تُو چلے علے so woh chale.

هم چلس ham chaleii. tum chalo. تُم چلو , we chalen.

THE FUTURE.

'I shall go,' etc.

main chalunga مَبْن چِلُونْكَا tū chalegā.

م چلینگ ham chalenge. tum chaloge. تُم چلوگ we chalenge. وي حلينگ , we chalenge.

THE PAST CONDITIONAL OR OPTATIVE.

'Had I gone,' 'Did I go,' (Would that) 'I had gone,' etc.

main chaltā. tū chaltā. تُو حلتا يُ علتا عن woh chalta.

ham chalte. tum chalte. تُم چلتے we c.

THE PRESENT IMPERFECT.

'I am going,' etc.

ham chalte hain. هم چلّت هُبْس به main chalta hūn. مَيْن چلّتا هُون tā chalta hai. تُم چلّت هو tum chalte ho. تُم چلّت هي wõh chalta hai. وي چلّت هي we chalte hain.

THE PAST CONTINUOUS OR IMPERFECT.

'I was going,' etc.

المعاملة ال

THE PAST ABSOLUTE OR INDEFINITE.

'I went,' etc.

1 main chalā. tū chalā.

1 s. woh chala.

e chale.

THE PROXIMATE, OR PRESENT PERFECT.

'I have set out, or gone,' etc.

الله المستوان المستو

THE REMOTE, OR PAST PLEFECT.

'I had started or gone,' etc.

الم يس چلا تها main chalā thā. حم چلے تھے ham chala the. tum chale the. أم جل تبيا tu chala tha. we chale the. على على من we chale the.

THE FUTURE PERFECT, OR PAST POTENTIAL.

'I shall have gone,' or (more commonly) 'I may have gone,' etc.

we chale وي چلے هونگ or هوں من with chala hogh وه چلاهوگا or دو with chala honge or hon.

Rem. The above is the conjugation of an intransitive-active verb, the root of which ends in a consonant. If the root ends in a vowel, the acrist admits of certain optional forms, and the masculine singular of the perfect participle takes an euphonic y between the root and the termination. The following tenses will therefore suffice to show the process of conjugation:

THE AORIST.

'I come, or shall come, or should come,' etc.

الله المستقادة المستقدد المستقادة المستقادة المستقادة المستقادة المستقادة ا

THE PAST ABSOLUTE, OR INDLINITE.

'I came,' etc.

الم main aya.

и. поот " ho,1 'to be, or become.'

Infinitive or Gerund Us hona, 'to be, or become,' being,' etc. Fut. Act. Part. " ... hone-wala, about to be, or become, one who, or what, is, or is about, to be or become.'

Imperfect boing, or becoming.' ". Perfect مُنَّوَّ hā'ā, 'been, or become.' Conjunctive { هو _ هوکر _ .) having been or become.' Adverbial هوتے هي hote-hī, 'in the very act, or in the instant of being,' etc.

1 Urdu grammanans, after the example of the Arabic, have two names for the verb hona, and the other auxiliary verbs with the same signification. When the substantive verb is used to denote simple being or existence, they term it fifth nakes, the incomplete or detective verb,' because an attribute is required to complete the sense; but when it contains the attribute in itself, and requires no other, they term it follow tanım, 'the complete or absolute verb.'

² Urdū also occasionally employs the common 'lindī form honhār, 'what is to be,' etc., where the affix har is added to the verbal noun hon.

THE IMPERATIVE.

SINGULAR.

PLUBAL.

tun ho, 'be or become you.' م هو tun ho, 'be or become you.' Precative مُوجِيك hūjiye, 'be pleased مُوجِيو hūjiyo, 'you shall be or to become,' etc.)

Fut. مُوجِقيكا $\hbar \bar{u} j i^{2} e g \bar{a}$, 'will you be pleased to become.'

THE AORIST.

'I am, I shall be, I should be, or become,' etc.

THE FUTURE.

'I shall be, or become,' etc.

THE PAST CONDITIONAL OR OPTATIVE.

¹ The forms marked with an asterisk are now seldom or never used. The forms $ho^i eg\bar{a}$ and $ho^i enge$ in the 2nd and 3rd pers. sing. and the 1st and 3rd pers. plural of the Future, which are given in Forbes' and other grammars, rarely if ever occur in the Uidū of the present period.

THE PRESENT IMPERFECT.

'I am becoming,' etc.

المعناه المعنى المعناه المعناه

THE PAST CONTINUOUS OR IMPERFECT.

'I was becoming,' etc.

الله منظم هوت تب المستفية main hotā thā. هم هوت تب المستفيد المست

THE PAST ABSOLUTE OR INDEFINITE.

'I became,' etc.

THE PROXIMATE OR PRESENT PERFECT.

'I have become,' etc.

هم هُوئے هَيْں main hū'ā hān. هم هُوئے هَيْں ham hū'e hain. هم هُوئے هو tun hū'a hai. تُو هُوْا هَي tum hū'e ho. ثُمْ هُوئے هو we hū'e hain.

THE REMOTE OR PAST PERFECT.

'I had become,' etc.

هُ مُعْونَ تَهِ مَعْونَ مَعْوا تَهَا main hū'ā thā. هُم هُوئے تَهِ مَعْوا تَهَا لَمْ اللهُ لَمْ اللهُ لَمْ مُوئے تَهِ لَمْ اللهُ لَمْ اللهُ الل

THE FUTURE PERFECT AND PAST POTENTIAL.

'I shall have become,' or 'I may have become,' etc.

ADDITIONAL TENSES.

195. We may here notice the tenses not in common use, spoken of in § 181. These are: 1). The Future Imperfect, which is formed by adding the Future of the verb verb to the imperfect participle of a verb: 2). The Present Potential, formed by adding the Aorist of the verb u_{\bullet} honā to the imperfect part. of a verb: 3). The Past Perfect Continuous of the Subjunctive mood, formed by adding the imperfect participle of the verb U.S. $hon\bar{a}$ to the imperfect participle of another verb: 4) the Past Perfect Subjunctive, formed by adding the imperfect participle of the verb by honā, to the perfect part. of another verb. The first and second of these tenses are both called خال مُتشكِّي lūlě mulushakkī, 'the present potential,' by native grammarians, because the first is frequently used, the second always, to express uncertainty or possibility. The third and fourth are both termed مافيي māzī shartī, 'the past conditional.' They are very seldom used; the shorter form of the māzī shartī, given among the tenses in common use, being preferred. The four tenses are subjoined:

1). THE FUTURE IMPERFLUT.

'I shall be going,' or 'I may be going,' etc.

ham chalte honge. هم چلتے هونگا الله main chalta hanga. الله میں چلتا هونگا

tum chalte hoge. تُم چلّت هوگے اِ tū chaltā hogā. we chalte honge. وي حِلْت هونگ woh chalta hoga. أو حِلتا هوگا

2). THE PRESENT POTENTIAL.

'I may be going,' etc.

nain chalta hon. مم چلتے هوں ا rain chalta hon.

tum chalte ho. تُم چلتے هو tā chaltā ho. تُو چلتاً هو wöh chaltā ho. وي چلتے هوں wöh chaltā ho.

3). THE PAST PERFECT CONTINUOUS (SUBJUNCTIVE).

'Had I been going,' or 'I might have been going,' etc.

مَّ مَنْ جَلْنَا هُوتَا مِنْ main chalta hotā. هم چَلْنَے هُوتَا هُوتا tā chaltā hotā. تُم چِلْتَا هُوتا تُم چُلْتا هُوتا يَّ بِهُ مُلِتَا هُوتا هُوتا عُلَقَ مُوتا هُوتا هُنا هُوتا هُوتا هُوتا هُوتا هُوتا هُوتا هُتَلَاتِهُ هُتَا عُتَا هُتَا عُتَا هُتَا عُتَا هُتَا هُتَا عُتَا هُتَا عُتَا هُتَا عُتَا هُتَا عُتَا هُتَا هُتَا عُتَا عُتَا عُتَا عُتَا عُتَلَاتًا هُتَا عُتَلَاتًا عُتَلَاتًا عُتَا عُتَا عُتَا عُتَلَاتًا عُتَلَاتًا عُتَلَاتًا عُتَلَاتًا عُتَلَاتًا عُتَلَاتًا عُتَلَع

4). THE PAST PERFECT (SUBJUNCTIVE).

'Had I gone,' etc.

ham chale hote. هم چليه هوتي ham chala hota.

tum chale hote. تم چلے هوتے tū chalā hotā. we chale hote. وي جلي هوتا with chalā hotā.

THE PASSIVE VOICE.

196. Only transitive verbs have a passive voice. The tenses of this are regularly formed in all verbs by means of the tenses of the verb ble jana, 'to go' (the perfect participle of which is $\partial gay\bar{a}$; though every form in which the verb $\forall j\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ is found is not passive: e.g. $\forall j\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ uthā jānā, 'to go away,' أيَّا جانا uthā jānā, 'to rise up,' 'to be able to rise,' are active forms of intransitive

verbs. Whether the verb is passive or intransitive is decided not by the presence of the auxiliary contract v the nature of the participle prefixed to it. It this to passive, so also, generally, is the verb: if it is not passed but only a perfect participle of an intransitive verb, neither is the verb passive.

197. In the following conjugation of the passive voice of the verb ديكينا deklinā, 'to see,' the masculine forms alone are given. If the nominative to the verb be feminine, the termination of the passive participle must be changed to = i in both the singular and the plural; and that of all the participial forms, and of the Future, of the auxiliary must be changed to = i in the singular, and تين in the plural.

Passive Verb, ديكيا جانا dekhā jānā, 'to be seen.'

Infinitive or Verbal Noun, دیکیا جان dekhā jānā, ('to be seen,' Imperfect Participle, دیکها جاتا dekhā jātā, 'being seen.' Passive Participle, دکیا گیا dekhā gayā, 'been seen.'1

THE IMPRIATIVE.

المجانة المجا

THE ACRIST.

'I am, or shall be, or should be, seen,' etc.

dekhe jāwen or jā'en.

tū dekhā

jāwe or jā'e.

jāwe or jā'e.

tum dekhe jā'o.

tum dekhe jā'o.

tum dekhe jā'o.

jāwe or jā'e.

jāwe or jā'e.

ham هم ديكه_ جاويس _ جائيس | main dekhā jā'ān. مَيْن ديكها جاوِّس dekhe jawen or ja'en.

¹ It is needless to give the remaining participles, as none of them, except perhaps the adverbial (دیکتے جاتے هي) dekhe fate-hī, 'on the instant of being seen,' are ever used.

THE FUTURE.

'I shall be seen,' etc.

المنتقل من ديكها جاوتكا منين ديكها جاوتكا بأوتكا بأو ديكها جاويكا جايكا بأن في المنتقل من المنتقل من المنتقل المنتقل

PLURAL.

we dekhe وي ديكبے جاوينگ من من من وه د كبا جاويگا۔ جايگا jāwegā, or jā'egā.

THE PASE CONDITIONAL OR OPTATIVE.

'Had I been seen,' 'Were I seen,' etc.

THE PRESENT IMPERFECT.

'I am being seen,' etc.

jata han. الله المسلم jata hai. المديكيا جاتا هي tā dekhā jātā hai. أو ديكها جاتا هي

ham dekha هم ديكي جات هَيْن الله main dekha مَيْن ديكها جاتا هُون jātā hān. woe dekhe jato وي ديكن جات حَيْن الله woh dekha jata hai. ويكها جاتا هَي

THE PAST CONTINUOUS OR IMPERFECT.

'I was being seen,' etc.

ham dekha هم ديكي جاتي تهي استفا مَيْن ديكها جاتا تها jātā thā. tum dekho تُم دیکھے جاتے تھے بنا dekha jata tha.

woo dekhe jato وي ديكهے جانے تہے اللہ woh dekha jata tha.

THE PAST ABSOLUTE OR INDEFINITE.

'I was seen,' etc.

SINGULAR.

ham dekhe ga'e. هم ديكها گيا مين ديكها گيا we dekhe ga'c. وي ديكنا كيا سنة wöh dekha gaya.

tum dekhe ga'e. تُم ديكت كئے tu dekhā gayā.

THE PROXIMATE OR PRESENT PERFECT

'I have been seen,' etc.

we delhe وي ديكب كله هي woh dekha gaya hai. وي ديكها گيا هي

THE REMOTE OR PAST PERIFCT.

'I had been seen,' etc.

ham delhe هم ديکبے گئے تيے main delha مَيْن ديکها گيا تها gayā thā. tum dekhe تُم دیکھے گئے تھے ایک tū dekhā gayā thā. تُو دیکھا گیا تھا we dekhe ga'o وي ديكب كلِّ تبي إلى wöh dekha gaya tha. إ

THE FUTURE PERFECT, OR PAST POTENTIAL.

'I shall have been seen,' or more commonly, 'I may have been seen,' etc. ham هم ديكيے گئے هونگے۔هوں | main مَسَى ديكها گيا هُونگا۔هوں dekhe ga'e honge, or hon. dekhā gayā hūngā, or hon, tum تُم دیکھے گئے هوگے ـ هو | tā dekhā gayā تُو دیکھا گیا هوگا۔ هو hoyā, or ho. dckhe ga'e hoge, or ho.

dckhe ga'e hoge, or ho.

we we was a compared to the second with the second we have the second with the second with the second we want to the second with the second wi dekhe ga'e honge, or hon. gayā hogā, or ho.

DERIVATIVE VERBS.

198. Derivative verbs may be classed under the three heads of Causals, Denominatives, and Compound Verbs.

I. CAUSAL VERBS,1

- 199. From nearly every verb in the language a causal may be derived. This causal will be transitive if formed from an intransitive verb, doubly transitive or causative if formed from a transitive verb. From most causals again a second or double causal may be formed.
- 200. Simple verbal roots are generally changed into causal bases by the addition of the increment $1-\bar{u}$, and into those which are doubly causal by means of the increment $\sqrt[4]{w\bar{a}}$, and the root is then treated as a primitive root ending in \bar{a} . But in some verbs the causal characteristic \bar{a} becomes $\sqrt[4]{\bar{u}}$; and in others it is inserted in the root itself: hence three cases arise:
- a) The causal may, generally speaking, be formed by adding $1-\bar{u}$ to the root of a primitive verb, whether it be transitive or intransitive, and the double causal by inserting w before the increment \bar{u} of the causal: e.g.

¹ A causal verb is termed by the native grammarians fe[†]lö motaladdī bi'l wāsita, ⁴a verb which passes on (to an object) by means of (an increment),' in contradistinction to ⁴a verb which is transitive per se,' or fe[†]lö mataladdī bi nafsihi.

² In a few verbs w would appear to be inserted before the causal increment \bar{a} for the sake of cuphony alone.

Subordinate to this rule are the two following:

1) If the root of the primitive verb be dissyllabic, the vowels of both syllables being short and that of the second fatha (a), this fatha is dropped in the first causal (cf. $\S 34$, 4, Rem. c.): e.g.

PRIMITIVE VERB. DOUBLE CAUSAL. samajh-nā, نمجيّنا samjhā-nā, نمجيّنا samajhwā-nā, 'to have 'to understand.' 'to explain.' (a thing) explained (to one person by another).' يگهلوانا , pighal-nā, پگهلوانا , pighlā-nā, پگهلوانا , pighal-nā, 'to have tomelt' (intrans.). 'to melt' (trans.). (a thing), melted (by (a thing) melted (by some one). 'tomelt' (intrans.).

- 2) If the root of the primitive verb be monosyllabic and enclose a long vowel or diphthong, the vowel or diphthong is changed in both causals into the corresponding short vowels, or, in other words, the letters of prolongation 1, , ω , are dropped: c.g.
- ي jag-nā, 'to wake.' إن jagā-nā, 'to wake.' إن jagwā-na, 'to cause be awake.' (one) to be wakened.' bhīg-nā, 'to bhigā-nā, 'to wet.' إن bhigā-nā, 'to have become wet.' (a thing) wetted.' (a thing) wetted.' أُوبِنا أَمْ طِيلُنا أَمْ طُلُمُ أَلَّمُ اللهُ عَلَى اللهُ عَلَى اللهُ عَلَى اللهُ الله

 - bulā-nā, 'to have بُلُوا لا bulā-nā, 'to call بُلُوا bulā-nā, 'to have (one) to (come and) (one) called.' speak.'
 - baith-nā, 'to seat.' نيتي bithānā, 'to seat.' نيتين bithwā-nā, 'to cause sit down.'
- b) If the root of the primitive verb end in a long vowel $(\bar{u}, \bar{i}, e, \bar{u}, o)$, the increment generally takes the form l $d\bar{u}$ in the causal, and I loa in the double causal; and the long vowel of the root is shortened as in the preceding, rule: e.g.

¹ The causals of hhīgnā and dubnā may also take the forms bhigonā and dubonā (See Rem. § 202), and that of barthna other forms, which are given under Rule c.

PRIMITIVE VEPB.	CAUSAL.	DOUBLE CAUSAL.
کهانا $khar{a}$ - $nar{a}$,	khilā-nā,¹ 'to give to کيلانا	.khilwā-nā كيْلُوانا
"to eat."	ent,' 'to feed.'	
<i>pī-nā</i> , 'to پینا drink.' •	بلانا pilā-nā, 'to give to	pilwā-nā پِلُوانا
drink.' .	drink.'	- 2
de-nā, ' to دينا	עֵנוֹל dilā-nā, 'to cause to	dilwā-nā. دِٽوانا
give.'	give.'	
chhū-nā, ل چيئونا	chhulā-nā, 'to cause عِيْلان	chhulwā-nā. چېگوانا
'to touch.	to touch.'	
so-nā, ' to سونا	للل sulā-nā, 'to put to	sulwā-nā.
sleep.	sleep.'	•

A few verbs take the form of the double causal alone: e.g. کبونا khonā, 'to lose,' causal کبونا khuwā-nā; گانا jānā, 'to sing,' causal کبونا lonā, 'to take,' causal لینا liwā-nā.

Some verbs, the roots of which end in consonants (chiefly h, kh th), may take the increment $l\bar{a}$ in the causal, as well as \bar{a} ; but in the double causal the increment is always $w\bar{a}$: e.g.

يهانْدُنا " phānd-nā, 'to ensnare.' ,, پهنديا phandlā-nā.

Rem. The same causal forms are also found in cases where the roots of the primitive verbs (which have become obsolete) end in t(d), and s; as $batl\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{c}$, 'to tell,' to point out;' $phusl\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{u}$, 'to wheedle,' 'to coax.'

¹ The instances of radical \tilde{a} changing to i in the causal are not numerous; and even the example given above takes the form khalianā in Southern India.

e) Intransitive roots enclosing short vowels are frequently made transitive by the insertion of \bar{a} in the root itself, this \bar{a} coalescing with radical a into \bar{a} , with radical i into e, and with radical u into e: (final e of the root, it may be observed, is frequently changed into e in the transitive verb): e.

dabnā, 'to be pressed,' transitive داننا dābnā, 'to press.' katnā, 'to be spun,' ". كاتّنا kātnā, 'to spin.' لتنا katnā, 'to be cut,' .. كاتَّنا kāṭnā, 'to cut.' "phaṭnā, 'to be torn,' ,, the pharna, 'to tear.' لدُنا ladnā, 'to be laden,' لادّنا lādnā. 'to load.' .. لنَّذُهنا bāndhnā, 'to bind.' bandhnā, 'to be bound,' marnā, 'to die,' ", الله mārnā, 'to kill.' "garnā, 'to be buried,' ,, الله gārnā, 'to bury.' Li palnā, 'to be protected,' Lib pālnā, 'to protect.' 'nikalnā, 'to come out.' .. كالنا nihālnā, 'to take out.' thāmnā, ¡ to hold, تهامنا thamnā,)' to be held, thambhnā, or supported, " thānbhnā, for support.' ", ritna, 'to be filed, تنا retnā, 'to file.' chhidnā, 'to be perforated,' " دنا جيدٌنا chhednā, 'to perforate.' لكنا biknā, 'to be sold,' " ليخيا bechnā,² 'to sell.' phutnā,) 'to burst, " پيوڙنا phornä, 'to break.' phūṭnā, for split asunder,' ", کید لنا kholnā, 'to open.' khulnā, 'to become open,'

¹ The softening of the tenuis ℓ into the media d (r), and of ℓh into rh, occurs most commonly after the letters p, ph, ch, chh, and gh: c.g. $parhn\bar{a}$, 'to read' = Sanskrit $pa\ell hanam$; $p\bar{r}rh\bar{a}$, 'a stool' = S. $p\bar{r}\ell ha$; $phor\bar{a}$, 'a boil' = S. $spho\ell aka$; $chhakr\bar{a}$, 'a cart' = S. $saha\ell a$; ghara, 'an earthen pot' = S. $gha\ell a$; $ghor\bar{a}$, 'a horse' = S. $gho\ell aka$. If ph and a long vowel precede ℓ , it generally passes into r.

² This change of k into ch is almost inexplicable. I can find no mention of such a change in the $Pr\bar{a}krita$ - $Prak\bar{a}k\sigma$. But there would appear to be in Sauskrit some connection between the guttural class of letters and the palatal; for when a verb beginning with a guttural is reduplicated, the corresponding palatal is used; and, reversely, final ch of nominal bases is changed into k before certain case-endings.

- Rem. a. In a few transitive verbs the root vowels of the corresponding intransitives are simply lengthened: e.g. بيننا pīsnā, 'to grind,' from بيننا pisnā; بيننا pīṭnā, 'to beat,' from يُتنا ودhhīlnā, 'to peel,' from گُوتهُنا gūthnā, 'to plait,' from گُوتهُنا guthnā.
- Rem. b. Under this class of verbs (which are strangely termed "anomalous") existing grammars place the verb ركبنا, rakhnā, 'to keep,' as the causal of ركبنا rahnā, 'to remain;' but this is a mistake: the two verbs are derived from distinct Sanskrit forms.
- 201. These verbs, though derived (as we shall presently see) from Sanskrit causals, have in many, if not most, cases lost the causal signification, and become simply transitive. Hence we find that some of the intransitive verbs of this class, as well as their transitive derivatives, have also regular causals (and double causals) formed from them; but these, as a rule, retain the true causal character; and where the primitive intransitive verb has various significations, it will often be found that some of them are peculiar to the transitive and some to the causal derivative: e.g. from the verb in phutānā is formed the transitive who phornā, and the causal phutānā; but the former signifies 'to break,' and the latter 'to make (water, etc.) boil,' a sense which phornā never has.

¹ This common word, strange to say, is not found in Shakespear's Dictionary, and, though given in Forbes', is said to mean 'to increase,' etc. But the dictionaries make sad confusion among the causal verbs. If garānā, for example, is given as the causal of \(\begin{arra}{c} \begin{arra}{c} \sqrna \text{ alone}; \text{ but there can be no doubt of its being the causal of } \\ \eta \begin{arra}{c} \eta \text{ garnā} \text{ alone}; \text{ but there can be no doubt of its being the causal of } \\ \eta \begin{arra}{c} \text{ in the second, 'to have or get (a thing or person) buried.' Similarly \(\lambda \text{ tatānā} \text{ is the causal of both } \\ \eta \text{ katānā} \text{ and } \text{ lully } \\ \eta \text{ datānā}, \text{ but more commonly that of the latter. We may here observe that in some verbs the \(\frac{first}{first} \) causal derived from a transitive verb is sometimes identical in meaning with the \(\section{array}{c} \text{ satāna} = \text{ latē} \text{ āna}; \(\text{ rakhānā} = \text{ rakhānā} = \text{ rakhānā} = \text{ rakhānā} = \text{ rakhānā} \)

202. The following sentences will exemplify the use of the primitive and causal forms of a verb:

مكان گِرْتا هَي makān girtā hai, 'the house is falling:'
يُرَا هَي سَكَانَ كُورُاتا هَي سَكَانَ كُو گِراتا هَي سَكَانَ كُو گُراتا هَي سَكَانَ كُو مُراتا هَي سَكَانَ كُو گُراتا هَي سَكَانَ كُو گُراتا هَي سَكَانَ كُو مُراتا هُ سَكَانَ كُولُولًا عُلَيْكُولُ عَلَيْكُولُ عَلَيْكُ عَلَيْكُولُ عَلَ

apne makān-ko girwātā hai, 'the owner is having his house pulled down by that man.'

سَيْن عربِي پڙهٽتا هُوں main 'arabī parhtā hūn', 'I am reading

مُوں عربِي پڙهاتا هُوں apne larke-ko 'arabī parhātā hin, 'I am teaching my boy Arabic :'

مُواوِي صاحب سے اپنے لزّکے کو عربِي پرّهُواتا هُوں maulavī sāhibse apne larke-ko arabī parhwāta hūn, 'I am having my boy taught Arabic by the Maulavī-ṣāhib.

Rem. The causal affix of the Sanskrit is ay, which in many verbs (chiefly when the verbal root ends in a long vowel) takes the form $\bar{a}pay$. The Prākrit changes ay into e, and $\bar{a}pay$ into $(\bar{a}be$, and then) $\bar{a}ve$, and uses both forms without any apparent distinction. In Hindī and its sister dialects the first affix is not used, and the second is changed to $\bar{a}u$, by elision of final e, and weakening of v to u; and from $\bar{a}u$, by elision of u, is derived the causal characteristic \bar{a} of the modern Hindī. But in a few verbs the vowels \bar{a} , u, would appear to have coalesced into o: e.g. $bh\bar{v}gon\bar{a}$, $dubon\bar{a}$, $garon\bar{a}$, etc., the causals of $bh\bar{v}gn\bar{a}$, $dubn\bar{a}$, and $garn\bar{a}$.

The modern dialects also use $l\bar{a}$ as a causal characteristic, and in this form the l is generally supposed to be inserted for the sake of euphony. But in this opinion we cannot concur; for when these languages desire to avoid a hiatus (and we may observe in passing that they are by no means averse to a hiatus), they generally insert y, or h, and not l. Besides, we find $l\bar{a}$ used as the causal affix even in

cases where the verbal root ends in a consonant, and no insertion of euphonic l is called for. It seems more probable that $l\bar{a}$ is derived from the Sanskrit causal affix ay, which was first changed to $\bar{a}l$, or $\bar{a}r$ (the two letters l and r being commonly interchangeable), and then to $l\bar{a}$, or $r\bar{a}$. Hindī and Panjābī show a preference for $l\bar{a}$, while Sindhī and Gujarātī prefer $r\bar{a}$. We can only call to mind one example of the form $\bar{a}l$ of the increment in Hindī, namely $bith\bar{a}ln\bar{a}$; but numerous examples of the form $\bar{a}r$ are to be found in Sindhī. That y is occasionally changed into l is seen from the Prākrit latthi (the Hindī $lath\bar{a}$, \bar{a} a stick, or lath, \bar{a} column') = Sanskrit yashti ($Pr\bar{a}krita-Prak\bar{a}sa$, ed. Cowell, sect. ii. 32).

As regards the verbs given under Rule c.), it may be mentioned that their bases are not formed in Hindi in the manner described; but the rule is an attempt to explain the modification which a verbal root undergoes in Sanskrit before it receives the causal affix. These verbs are incorrectly called "anomalous:" they are simply derived from the verbal nouns of Sanskrit causals: e.g. the verbal noun maranam of the Sanskrit root mri, is the source of the Hindi intransitive verb marnā. 'to die;' in the causal the root mri takes the form mar, and the verbal noun is māranam, whence the Hindī transitive verb mārnā, 'to kill.' In not a few cases a process the reverse of that described in the rule takes place; namely, the intransitive verb is formed from the transitive in Hindī itself: e.g. the Sanskrit causal form pālanam = Hindī pālnā, 'to protect,' whence is formed palnā, 'to be protected;' the Sanskrit māpanam = Hindī māpnā, 'to measure,' whence mapnā, 'to be measured.' Some transitive verbs, it may be observed, have no corresponding intransitive, and retain no trace of their being causals; as bhejnā, 'to send' = S. bhedanam, 'dividing.'

II. DENOMINATIVE VERBS.

203. Denominatives may be conveniently noticed under the two following heads.—

1) DENOMINATIVES FORMED FROM VERBAL NOUNS.

These are formed by adding the infinitive increment نا nā to a Persian or Arabic verbal noun; e.g. نفخ bakhshna, 'to forgive,' from the Persian خريد bakhsh; 'to forgive,' from the Persian غريد لله kharīd; نوليد لله badalnā, 'to change,' from the Arabic عرب badalnā, 'to accept,' from the Arabic قبُول kabūlnā, 'to fear,' from ترس tars, 'fearing,' 'fear;' ترس bahasnā, 'to dispute,' from خاصه bahs, 'controversy.'

2) DENOMINATIVES DERIVED FROM OTHER NOUNS.

These are formed by adding the termination $U = \bar{a}n\bar{a}$ to a substantive or adjective, final \overline{z} being changed to iy before the termination is added, and a long vowel in a dissyllabic noun shortened: e.g. شرمان sharmānā, 'to be bashful,' from شرم sharm, 'shame;' گرمانا garmānā, 'to be heated,' 'to become warm or angry,' from I garm, 'hot;' پنِيَانا paniyānā, 'to water, or irrigate,' from پنِيَانا pānī, 'water;' water;' to mukiyānā, 'to hit with the fist,' 'to knead dough,' from نگی mukkī, 'the fist.' If the noun or adjective end in \bar{u} , the termination $n\bar{u}$ alone is added; as chaurānā, 'to widen,' from المَوْزَال chaurānā, 'wide;' الكا langrānā, 'to go lame,' 'to limp,' from الكا langrā, 'lame.' A few Persian nouns also, which are monosyllabic and enclose a long vowel, take the termination $n\bar{a}$ instead of ana: e.g. داغنا dagna, 'to brand, or cauterize,' from ¿ dāg, 'a spot or mark.'

Rem. Denominatives are not of very common occurrence in Urdū, compound forms being generally preferred : e.g. يَخْشُ دينا bakhsh denā,

'to forgive,' قَبُول كُرْنا 'kabūl karnā, 'to accept,' مَكِي مَارَنا 'mukkī mārnā, 'to hit with the first,' پانِي دينا 'pānī denā, 'to water,' چُوڙا 'chaurā karnā, 'to widen.'

III. COMPOUND VERBS.

204. Compound verbs, or what are commonly regarded as such, are very numerous in Hindūstānī. They are generally divided into Nominals, Intensives, Potentials, Completives, Continuatives, Staticals, Frequentatives, Desideratives, Inceptives, Permissives, Acquisitives, and Reiteratives; but not a few of these are, strictly speaking, not compound verbs, but phrases, as we shall show in noticing them.

NOMINALS.

205. These are formed by prefixing a noun (substantive or adjective) to a verb: e.g.

Such forms, it is clear, are not compound verbs; the noun in every instance simply serves to complete the notion of the verb, forming the *predicative noun* in the *Nominative* when the verb is *intransitive*, and in the *Accusative* when the verb is *transitive*. It is even (as we shall show in the Syntax) in not a few instances separated from the verb by other words.

206. Similar in character to the Nominal verbs are the

few compounds formed by prefixing a Persian preposition or adverb to a Hindī verb: e.g.

لوآن bar-ānā, 'to come up or forth,' 'to succed.'

الله bar-lānā, 'to bring up or forth,' 'to accomplish.'

الله ba-ham-ānā, 'to come together,' 'to be acquired.'

الله ba-ham-pahunchnā, 'to arrive or come together,' 'to be procured.'

الله bāz-ānā, 'to come back,' 'to decline,' 'to abstain.'

الله bāz-rakhnā, 'to keep or hold back,' 'to restrain.'

الله pesh-ānā, 'to come before,' 'to present (itself),' 'to treat,' etc.

الله dar-ānā, 'to come in,' 'to enter.'

- 207. The remaining compound verbs may be arranged under four classes, according as they are formed with the verbal root, the imperfect participle, the perfect participle, or the conjunctive participle.
 - a) Compounds formed with the Root.

 These are the Intensives, Potentials, and Completives.

1) Intensives.

208. Intensives are formed by prefixing the root of a verb to another verb, which is regularly conjugated, the root remaining unchanged. The signification of the compound is that of the root intensified by the second member. In many cases however the effect produced by the second member of the compound is not obvious. Examples are:—

پي جانا pī-jānā, 'to drink up or off.' bol-uṭhnā, 'to speak or call out.' بول أَنْهَنا لَمْنا لَمْنا لَمْنا لَمْنا لَمْنا لَائنا لَائ Rem. The appropriate verb for intensifying another, like the appropriate adverb in English, is determined by usage. Not a few verbs, which existing grammars call intensives, have nothing intensive in their signification; some of them are properly completives; others simply transitives, formed by prefixing the root form of the conjunctive participle of the verb المن المستقالة المستقا

2) POTENTIALS.

209. These verbs express the ability to perform an action. They are formed by adding the verb $\omega sakn\bar{a}$, 'to be able,' to the root form of another verb: e.g.

با سکنا jā-sahnā, 'to be able to go.' جا سکنا dehh-sahnā, 'to be able to sec.' دیکته سکنا kar-saknā, 'to be able to do.' کر سکنا شوں main-kar-saktā hun, 'I can do.' وَد دیکته سکا شوں دورکتے سکا

- 1 A recent writer on Urdū Grammar observes; "The verbs le-ānā, le jānā, khā-jānā, etc., are neuter, because the verbs ānā and jāna are neuter." This is simply incorrect. They are transitive, and are so called by native grammarians; but, like a few other transitive verbs, do not take the passive construction in the tenses composed of the past participle because a passive participle cannot be formed from them.
- ² The same grammarian tries to "discriminate" between the forms $ho_7\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ and $ho_7rahn\bar{a}$; so_ $7\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ and $so_7rahn\bar{a}$; but his remarks show that he is not aware of the fact that the verbs $7\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ and $rahn\bar{a}$ are frequently synonymous, and are commonly used to the sense of $hon\bar{a}$, and are called by the native grammarians 'the sisters of hona.' Had he lived in India, he would have often heard the expression so raho used in the sense of 'go to sleep,' and $s\bar{a}hih$ so $rah\bar{a}$ hai, in the sense of both 'the master is sleeping,' and 'the master has gone to sleep.' So, in the *Khirad Afroz*, p-71, $nah\bar{a}$ $rah\bar{i}$ have $=nah\bar{a}t\bar{i}$ have

Rem. It is very probable that the first part of these compounds is the apocopated infinitive, and not the root. Indeed we occasionally find the full form of the infinitive (always inflected however) expressed; as وَدُ عَيْمَا هَيْ woh dekhne saktā hai, 'he can see.' It may be observed that the verb saknā occurs only in compounds.

3) Completives.

210. These are obtained by adding the verb \vec{na} , 'to come to an end,' 'to be finished,' to the root of a verb; as

بول چُكنا bol-chuknā, 'to have done speaking.' بول چُكنا مرائد مُكنا parh-chuknā, 'to have done reading.'

Rem. The verb chuknā, like the verb saknā, occurs only in compounds.

- b) Compounds formed with the Imperfect Participle.
- 211. These are the Continuatives and Staticals of existing grammars. They are not compound verbs, but phrases wherein the participle is used adjectively or adverbially to denote a $-\hbar a l$, or circumstance.

1) CONTINUATIVES.

212. Continuatives are formed by prefixing an imperfect participle to one of the verbs \vec{jana} or \vec{jana} , used as synonymous with \vec{jana} , the participle which always takes the inflected musculine form conveying the idea of a continuous or habitual act or state: e.g.

بگتے جانا مملاد jānā, 'to be continually prating,' 'to go on prating.' ghumte rahnā, 'to be ever revolving,' 'to keep revolving.' نامنا جانا parhte jānā,) 'to continue or go on reading.'

Rem. The participle in these forms is in the locative case, and is used adverbially.

2) STATICALS.

213. In these the imperfect participle of a verb, or rather the elliptical form of the active or progressive participle, precedes another verb, and, as in English, agrees in gender and number with the subject or object of which it forms the attribute. There is nothing approaching to a compound verb in such forms: e.g. (الله منستا من منستا من منستا من منستا من منستا منستا منستا منستا منستا منستا منستا من منستا منستا منستا منستا منستا منستا منستا منستا منستا من منستا من منستا من منستا من من منستا منستا من منس

but) مَيْن نِي أَسْكُوا دُوزَّتِ پِكُتِّا main-ne usko dauṛle pukṛā, 'I caught it (while I was) running.'

Rem. The so-called Staticals differ from Continuatives in denoting a temporary or accidental scate. The two forms are clearly distinguished in most native grammars, but are strangely misunderstood by European grammarians, who teach that the participle is inflected in Staticals, and not inflected in Continuatives! Now, the fact is, that it is just to indicate duration or continuity (and, occasionally, a habitual state) that the particle or verbal adjective is changed into an adverb and inflected. This is evident from such forms as whether that gayā, 'I wearied through much or continued walking;' whether that gayā, 'I wearied through much or continued walking;' whether the gate of the patient of the pati

- c) Comfounds formed with the Perfect Participle.
- 214. A perfect participle, used as an abstract substantive in the Accusative or the Formative, is prefixed to one of the verbs کرّنا 'to make,' خاصًا 'to go,' and چاصًا 'to desire,' and the compound verb thus formed assumes an intransitive character.¹ Such compounds are of two kinds:

¹ Hence these verbs are never constructed passively with the Agent case in the tenses formed with the perfect participle (see § 185); e.g. with chapke but-ki turah barthe situa hi, 'she seated silent, like a statue, continued to listen,' el muddat talak us gam-men royā kiye, 'for a long period they continued to mourn in that affliction:' main tamam din aur tamam rat pani-min hath pa'on mara kiya, 'I kept striking (out) my hands and legs in the water the whole day and the whole night.' Similarly if any verbal noun be combined with a transitive verb in the same way, the compound verb is intransitive: e.g. do àdm? dekhā'i drye, 'two men appeared' (gave an appearance); ādmī kī āwāz sunā'i di, 'a mau's voice was heard.' This, it may be observed, is directly opposed to the teaching of European grammarians. If however the grammarians simply confined themselves to laying down incorrect or unsound rules, the offence might be pardoned; but when they pronounce the composition of standard authors "ungrammatical" because it does not conferm to those rules (as a recent writer does in more than one instance), the offence becomes unpardonable. We may here remark that if there is one point about which an educated native is not likely to be mistaken. it is the use of the Agent case.

1) FREQUENTATIVES OR CONTINUATIVES.

These denote the frequent, continual, or habitual performance of an act, and are formed: a) by adding the verb to a perfect participle, which (being the direct object of the verb) retains the nominative form of the masculine singular under all circumstances: e.g.

jāyā karnā, 'to go frequently,' 'to keep going' (lit. 'to make the going').

سيچا كرنا bechā karnā, 'to sell habitually.'

royā karnā, 'to weep perpetually,' 'to continue weeping.' يويا كرنا sunā karnā, 'to continue listening.'

" woh suna hī, 'she kept listening.' وْهُ سُناكِي

b) By adding the verb 'to go,' to a perfect participle used as an abstract substantive; but in this case the verb being neuter, the participle is put in the Formative: e.g.

chale jānā, 'to keep moving or walking on' (lit. 'to go on with or in walking').

kiye jānā, 'to continue or go on doing.'

Rem. The verb المنافع added to an uninflected perfect participle has occasionally the signification of هو سكنا ho saknā, 'to be possible.' Such forms, however, are not compound verbs, nor is the construction a passive one, as some grammarians mistakenly suppose; but the participle is used as a verbal noun, and forms the subject or nominative of the verb: عنا كيانا كيان

2) Desideratives.

These are formed by adding the verb $ch\bar{a}hn\bar{a}$, 'to wish or desire,' to a perfect participle used as a verbal noun in the Accusative, and hence uninflected. They express the desire to perform the act or enter the state signified by the participial noun: c.g.

بايا چاهنا چاهنا جايا جاهنا چاهنا خاهنا خاهنا خاهنا خاهنا dekhā-chāhnā, 'to wish to see.' ويكنا چاهنا پرها جاهنا paṛhā-chāhnā, 'to wish to read.' مرا چاهنا معرة جاهنا

The same forms are also commonly employed to express the fact of an act or state being imminent: e.g. وُه جايا چاهّنا يَّن wǒh jāyā-chāhtā hai, 'he is about to go;' وُه مرا چاهْني wòh marā chāhtī hai, 'she is about to die;' وي بهاگا چاهْني we bhāgā-chāte the, 'they were on the point of running away.'

Rem. a. In these compounds the participles of the verbs $j\bar{a}n\bar{a}$, 'to go,' and $j\bar{a}n\bar{a}$, 'to die,' always take the regular forms $j\bar{a}y\bar{a}$ and $j\bar{a}n\bar{a}$.

 going walking' (the perfect part. may in most cases be conveniently rendered into English by the imperfect); that of the second, 'the fox, lying in wait, was moving about;' and in the third sentence $j\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ is used in the sense of $hon\bar{a}$, so that the translation is, 'I was becoming dead,' etc., i.e. 'I was dying,' etc. As in the case of the imperfect participle, the inflected form of the perf. part. denotes a prolonged or continued act or state: e.g. $b = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2}$

- d) Compounds formed with Conjunctive Participles.
- 215. These are formed by prefixing a conjunctive participle, commonly $\perp lc$, of the verb $lcn\bar{a}$, 'to take,' to an intransitive verb of motion: e.g.

الے بہانجنا le pahunchaā, 'to arrive or come with,' 'to bring'

Rem. That the first member in these compounds is the conjunctive participle, and not the verbal root, as English writers on Urdū grammar call it, is evident enough from the examples given above. Another error of existing grammars in respect of these compounds is the calling them "neuter." We need only point out that the native grammarians do not countenance this view, but term them notice that that in other languages—c.g. Latin and Arabic—such verbs are classed under the head of transitive verbs. That they cannot take the passive construction in the tenses formed with the perfect participle, is simply owing to the fact that the last member of the compound (which alone is conjugated), being intransitive, cannot form a passive participle:

this, however, is not the criterion of a transitive, but of a directly transitive verb.

216. Some verbs invariably take an inflected infinitive before them, the infinitive or verbal noun being either in the locative or dative case. These forms, which cannot be regarded as compound verbs, are termed by the grammarians Inceptives, Acquisitives, and Permissives. To these may also be added *Desideratives*.

1) INCEPTIVES,

in which an inflected infinitive precedes the verb الكُنا lagnā, 'to come in contact (with),' 'to take to,' and hence 'to begin:' e.g. المائية المائي

2) Permissives.

An inflected infinitive is followed by the verb دينا denā

'to give or grant,' and (with the infinitive, as in Sanskrit),

'to allow or permit:' e.g. نع جانے دو jāne do (= أسي se jāne do (= أسي بانے كو دو

use jāne-ko do), 'allow him to go,' 'let him go;'

wŏh mujhe āne diyā, 'he allowed me to come.'

3) Acquisitives.

An inflected infinitive is followed by the verb پان $p\bar{a}n\bar{a}$, 'to get or obtain,' and (with the infinitive), 'to obtain permission,' 'to be allowed;' e.g. آنے پایا $\bar{a}ne~p\bar{a}y\bar{a}$ ($=\bar{a}ne-ko~p\bar{a}y\bar{a}$), 'he was allowed, or got permission, to come;' $j\bar{a}ne~p\bar{a}weg\bar{a}$, 'he will be allowed to go.'

4) Desideratives.

REITERATIVES.

217. It remains to notice the compound forms termed Reiteratives by European grammarians. These consist in the asyndetic connection of two verbs, or participles (most commonly of two conjunctive participles, or two imperfect participles followed by the auxiliary verb), the second of which usually rhymes with the first, and is either synonymous with it, or without any signification: e.g. سوچ ساچ کر soch sach kar, 'having reflected;' بول حال کر bol chal kar, 'having conversed;' منجيا بُجها كر samjhā bujhā kar, 'having explained,' or 'having reasoned;' بغير پُوچهے گجھے ba-gair puchhe gachhe, 'without asking or enquiring;' أن دونون un donon zukhmiyon ko زخمبوں کو گاڑنے دابنے کی فِکر میں رہا gārne dābne kī fikr mek rahā, 'he was busy with the thought of burying the two murdered persons;' کُچھے پیس ياس رهے تھے kuchh pis pas rahe the, 'they were pulverizing something;' مَين هارا تبكا تها main hārā thakā thā, 'I was worn out (and) tired;' اور وُد ایّنا گھر دیکھے بہالیے aur wöh apnā ghar dekhe bhāle, 'and he shall look after his own house.' In such constructions the last verb may sometimes be one which, although possessing a signification of its own, is rarely used except in combination with another

218. It is evident then from the preceding remarks that the compound verbs are, strictly speaking, of seven kinds; namely, Intensives, Potentials, Completives, Continuatives, Frequentatives, and Desideratives formed with the perfect participle, and Transitives formed by prefixing a past conjunctive participle to a verb denoting motion. In these the second member alone is conjugated, the first undergoing no change.

· CHAPTER IV.

PARTICLES OR INDECLINABLE WORDS (-inf).

I. ADVERBS.

- 219. Adverbs are used to qualify any attribute. As in other languages, they may be classified according to their meaning and logical connection, or according to their origin. In the few adverbs which we purpose noticing we shall adopt both these principles of classification, giving the preference however to the latter. Persian and Arabic adverbs will, as far as possible, be kept distinct from those of the Hindī.
- 220. Original Hindī adverbs are not numerous. The following are some of the most common:

182 ADVERBS.

221. Some adverbs are originally nouns or adjectives in the locative case: e.g.

222. Nouns in the ablative case may also be used as adverbs (تميز tamīz, 'the specification'):

223. Adjectives in the *uninflected* form (*i.e.* in the nom. sing. masc.) are also employed as adverbs, generally when it is intended to express rather the quality of the agent as seen in the act, or after the act, than the quality of the act itself: *e.g.*

يَّانا هَي wöh barā siyānā hai, 'he is very knowing, or cunning.' وَهُ بِرَّا سِيَانا هَي wöh bahut achchhā likhtā hai, 'he writes very well.'

224. The following useful series of adverbs are formed from pronominal bases by means of certain affixes:

T.	T.
PRONOMINAL	Kiere
T RONONINAL	יכיומו נו

	PROXIMATE DEMONSTRATIVE. a, i or y, ya.	REMOIT DEMONSTRATIVE. u or w, wu.	ka, ki or ky.	relative.	correlative. t, ta, te or ty.
1. Time	با ab,		kab, کب		بت tab,
	'now.'		'when?'	when.	'then.'
2. Place				jahan, جہاں	
	'here.'	'there.'	'where?'	'where.'	'there.'
3. Direction	idhar, إدهر	,udhar أدهر	,kidhar کِدھر	;jidhar جدهر	,tidhar تِدهر
	'hither.'	'thither.'	'whither?'	'whither.'	'thither.'
4. Manner	يوں {yū'n, yo'n, 'thus,' etc.	wūn, الاست) ووس won, 'thus,' 'so.'	\ \langle \frac{kyūn,}{kyon,} \\ 'how?why?'	or $ ightarrow jyrin, $ $ or $ $ ightarrow jyrin, $ $ or jvin, $ $ ightarrow ightarrow jyrin, $ $ ightarrow ightarrow jyrin, $ $ ightarrow jyrin,$	tyūn تيوں or {or tyon, ton.

1 The grammariaus would have us believe that these series of adverbs are formed in Hindi or Urdü itself from the pronouns $\mu \cdot h$, $\psi \cdot h$, etc., by adding the affixes b, etc.: but there can be no doubt that they are all derived from the Sanskrit, or that, at least, one or two of a series are derived from the corresponding Sanskrit series, and the rest formed after the same model. In the first series, for example, jab and tab spring, most probably, from the Sanskrit yūvat and tūvat, through the Prūkrit jūva, tūva; and ab and kab were similarly formed after wards. That this series is derived from jad, tad, etc., as some suppose, by change of d into b, is highly improbable, for d does not pass into b.

The termination $h\bar{a}n$ of the second series corresponds to the Sanskrit $sth\bar{a}m$, the loc. of $sth\bar{a}na$, 'place' e.g. $tah\bar{a}n = tatsth\bar{a}na$. $H\bar{a}n$, it may be observed, is in common use at the present day as a noun in the locative, signifying 'place,' 'house:' e.g. mere $h\bar{a}n$ $\bar{a}n\bar{a}$, 'come to my place or house;' $s\bar{c}hib$ he $h\bar{a}n$ $jan\bar{a}$, 'go to the gentleman's house;' not mere yahan, and $s\bar{a}hib$ he $yah\bar{a}n$.

The termination of the third series is not easy to trace. It would appear to correspond to the Sanskrit tas (vthar = itas), or to the Sanskrit affix ha (dha); v.g. vdhar = iha; most probably to the latter, for the Persian word corresponding to idhar is itar = Zend idhar = Sanskrit itha.

The termination of the fourth series is supposed to spring from the Sanskrit affix that or than e.g. rtham = Prakrit an=Hindi you; but we prefer to derive it from the Sanskrit evam (the Prakrit evvam), and to suppose that the other adverbs of the sories are formed after the model of it.

184 ADVERBS.

Rem. Instead of the forms kab, jab, tab, in the first series, the forms kad, jad, tad, are occasionally used (in Hindī commonly), and the first vowel of the series idhar, etc., is occasionally lengthened, e.g. jīdhar. etc.

225. The adjectives derived from the same pronouns (§ 156) are also employed (in the inflected form generally) as adverbs of manner and degree (measure, quantity): e.g.

aise, 'like this,' 'thus,' 'so.' من الله as this,' 'so much.' الله waise, 'like that,' 'so.' من الله waise, 'like that,' 'so.' من الله waise, 'like that,' 'so.' من الله waise, 'like that,' 'so much.' الله waise, 'in what way?' 'how?' من الله waise, 'in what way,' 'as.' من الله waise, 'in what way,' 'as.' من الله waise, 'in that way,' 'so.' من الله waise, 'in that way,' 'so.' الله waise, 'in that way,' 'so.' الله waise, 'in that way,' 'so.'

Occasionally however, like other adjectives (§ 223), they are used in the uninflected (masc.) form.

Rem. Of the double forms itne or itte, etc., the first are more generally used.

226. The pronominal adverbs, like most other adverbs, may be intensified by the addition to them of the emphatic particle k k i or k i i, the latter form being employed with those of the second and fourth series. *E.g.* 1) from the first series we get:

ابعِي abhī, 'this very instant,' 'just now,' 'immediately.'
يَجِي kabhī, 'ever' (کيجِي نهِيل kabhī nahīn, 'never').

jabhī, 'hence,' 'for such a reason' (frequently used for tabhī).
تابي tabhī, 'at that very time,' 'thence,' 'for that reason.'

Rem. Hū would appear to be an old form of hī; but it is now only

used, occasionally, with the derivatives from the interrogative pronoun: e.g. $\lambda kabh\bar{u} = \lambda kabh\bar{\iota}$.

2) In the second series, the termination $h\bar{a}n$ is elided before the emphatic particle $\hbar \bar{a}n$ is added; in some cases though the nasal of $h\bar{a}n$ is retained: e.g.

يمِين yahīn (or yanhīn), 'this very place,' 'just here.' وهِس wahīn (or wanhīn or wunhīn), 'that very place,' 'just there.' وهِس kahīn, 'anywhere' كمِين نبِين kahīn nahīn, 'nowhere'). خمين نبين tahīn, 'wheresoever.'

Rem. These forms are all contractions, and the two nasals, though not usually written, may often be distinctly heard in the pronunciation of a native, especially in the words $ya\dot{n}h\bar{n}\dot{n}$ and $wu\dot{n}h\bar{n}\dot{n}$; it is not correct therefore to say that they are formed "by changing $h\bar{a}\dot{n}$ (or $\bar{a}\dot{n}$) into $h\bar{n}\dot{n}$ (or \bar{n})." It may be observed further, that, with the exception of $\lambda\dot{n}\dot{n}$ 'somewhere, somehow,' they are never used as adverbs of manner, as some grammarians say they are.

3) Examples of the fourth series are:

يونَّى yūnhīn or yonhīn, 'just this way,' 'without any ground or reason.'

wūnhīn or wonhīn, 'in that very way,' 'on that very instant.' وُونَّهِيں jonhīn, 'as,' 'as soon as.'

Rem. These forms never convey a local signification, as the grammarians assert.

- 4) The remaining series take $h\bar{\iota}$ after them for emphasis; as يعان $idhar-h\bar{\iota}$, 'in this very direction,' 'to this place;' المعرفي $aise-h\bar{\iota}$, 'precisely like this;' يسي في $kaise-h\bar{\iota}$, 'in whatever way,' 'however,' 'how—soever;' كِنْنَا هِي $kitne-h\bar{\iota}$, 'how much soever.'
- 227. Adverbs of *time* and *place* may be used as nouns, and put in the genitive and ablative cases. With the

genitive postposition they become adjectives: e.g. اب کی ab-kī daf'a, 'this time;' یہاں کے باشندی yahān-ke bā-shinde, 'the people of this place.' An adverb of time in the ablative changes its signification from a point to duration of time; as کب سے kal-se, 'since yesterday;' کب سے kab-se, 'since when?' کب سے tab-se, 'since then:' and an adverb of place changes its signification from rest in, or motion to, to motion from a place: e.g. یہاں سے yahān-se, 'from this place,' 'hence.'

Rem. Adverbs of degree are said by some writers on Urdū grammar to be used in the locative case, and to change their signification to that of relative time, e.g. itne-men, 'meanwhile.' It is however more correct to regard itne, etc., in such cases as adjectives qualifying a noun of time understood: e.g. itne 'arse men. Similarly, when itne-men signifies 'for so much' (men being here used for ko, as it often is), itne is an adjective qualifying a noun of price or value understood.

- 228. Adverbs of time may also take the postposition تك tak ('till,' 'up to') after them, to signify the point up to which something lasts or continues: e.g. كل تك kal-tak, 'up to yesterday,' اب تك ab tak, 'till now,' 'as yet;' كب تك kab tak, 'till when?' 'how long?'
- 229. The same postposition after an adverb of place gives it the signification of motion towards the place, and also of degree: يهالى تك yahān tak, 'up to, or as far as, this place,' 'to this degree,' 'so much so;' كهالى تك kahān-tak 'up to where,' 'to what extent?' 'how far?'
- 230. The locative case of the demonstrative and relative pronouns may be used adverbially: e.g. اِس پر is-par, 'on this,' 'hereupon,' جس پر jis-par, 'whereupon.'

- اليد Liye, and اسط wāste, may be used as causal adverbs: e.g. اسط is liye, or إسط is wāste, 'on account of this,' 'therefore;' كس ليد kis liye, 'on account of what?' 'wherefore?'
- 232. The conjunctive participle is sometimes used adverbially: e.g. $j\bar{a}n-b\bar{u}jh-kar$, 'wittingly,' 'of set purpose.' This participle in many other cases also may be conveniently rendered by an English adverb.'
- 233. Compound adverbs are of frequent occurrence in Urdū. They generally consist of a repeated adverb or noun (the negative na being sometimes inserted between them to add indefiniteness, etc., to the idea), or of two similar nouns or adverbs, or of elliptical phrases.

The following are a few examples:

وهِبري دهِبري دهِبري المَّاتِّة وَهُمَّاتِه وَهُمَّاتِه وَهُمَّاتِه وَهُمَّاتِه وَهُمَّاتِه وَهُمَّاتِه وَهُمَّتِي الْهُمَّتِي الْهُمَّتِي الْهُمَّتِي الْهُمَّتِي الْهُمَّتِي الْهُمَّتِي الْمُعْتِي الْهُمَّتِي الْمُمَّتِي الْمُمَاتِي الْمَاتِي الْمُمَاتِي ا

We may here point out that chuple is not a conjunctive participle, as some of the grammarians term it, but the inflected form of the adjective chuple, 'silent.' As there is no such verb as chupnā, there can be no conjunctive participle of the form chuple.

```
پت په jhaṭ-paṭ, 'instantly.' جپت پت rāt-o-din, } 'night and day,' 'incessantly.' مات و دِن din-rāt,

hān to, 'yes, indeed.' نهين تو nahīn to, 'no, indeed.'
```

For the adverbs formed from the numerals see § 62 ct seq.

PERSIAN ADVERBS.

- 234. Persian adverbs are not to be distinguished from other parts of speech by termination or form; and only a few of them are genuine adverbs. They may be classed according to their origin, as
 - a) Nouns in the Accusative Case;
 - 1) Simple Substantives, in the singular or plural: e.g.

```
باز bāz, 'back,' 'again.'
س pas, 'after,' 'then,' 'therefore,' 'hence.'
بار pas, 'after,' 'then,' 'therefore,' 'hence.'
بار bār, 'time' (بار بار bār bār, 'repeatedly,' 'constantly').

bāre (e being the suffix of wity), 'once,' 'at length.'
بارها bārhā (hā being the plural suffix), 'many times,' 'often.'
لرها tanhā, 'alone.'
ازقنا kazā-rā ( = ازقنا عد kazā), 'by the will of God,' 'provi-
```

2) Compound Substantives; as

dentially.'

ي باكار (= az kārč kazā), 'by the work of God,' 'providentially.'
مناكلات nāgahān, or ناگله : āgāh, 'suddenly.'
ناگله shab-o-roz, 'night and day,' 'always.'

هر روز har roz, 'daily,' هر روز sar-ā-sar, 'altogether,' 'throughout.'

ايلي كلام المجانة kāṣilĕ kalām, 'the gist of the matter,' 'in brief.

b) Substantives with a Preposition.

The preposition most commonly met with in Urdū is ba, 'with or by;' but others also occur: e.g.

c). Adjectives, Simile or Compound.

d'. GENUINE ADVERES.

e). Interrogative: eg. Lī āyā, 'whether?' (Lat. num?).

Rem. The adverb of probability and doubt (which is most commonly used in Urdū) is alice shāyad, 'may-be,' 'perhaps.' It is the third pers. sing. of the aorist of the verb shāyistan, 'to be suitable.' For the adverbs formed by means of the affix alice āna, and the numeral adverbs, see the section on Persian Constructions.

ARABIC ADVERBS.

235. The adverbs borrowed from the Arabic may be classed under five heads: 1) Particles; 2) Substantives in the nominative case; 3) Substantives (simple or compound) in the accusative case; 4) nouns in the genitive case governed by a preceding preposition; 5) Phrases.

1) Particles.

Extremely few of these occur in Urdū. Examples are: fakat, 'only,' 'merely' (lit. 'and enough'); ¾ lā 'not' (used in composition alone).

2) SUBSTANTIVES IN THE NOMINATIVE.

These are not numerous in Urdū. Examples are: بعّد bud, and قبل بنّد mim-bud, 'afterwards;' قبل المناه بناه المناه ألله المناه المناه

3) Substantives in the Accusative.

The accusative is notably the adverbial case in Arabic, and hence such adverbs are of common occurrence in $Urd\bar{u}: e.g.$

Rem. Occasionally the tunwin is changed to fatha, the accusative taking the pausal form of the Arabic: e.g. $\exists z\bar{a}hir\bar{a}$, 'apparently.'

If the noun is determined by having the article al prefixed, or by being put in the construct state, it loses the tanwin, and (in Urdū and Persian) in the first case, the final vowel also: e.g.

Rem. In some cases, even where the noun is not defined, the tanwin is dropped in Urdū: e.g. آخِرًا <u>akhir</u>, 'at last,' for آخِرًا.

4) Noun Governed by a Prefosition.

5) PHRASES:

II. PREPOSITIONS AND POSTPOSITIONS.

- 236. The Urdū prepositions are, for the most part, originally adverbs (that is to say, Hindī nouns in the locative or ablative case, determined by a following genitive), or Persian and Arabic nouns used adverbially in the construct accusative: hence the use of the form $\leq ke$ of the genitive affix when the preposition (or governing noun) is masculine.
- 237. The genuine *prepositions* are nearly all Persian or Arabic, and invariably precede the noun they govern.

The other prepositions as commonly follow as precede the governed noun.

238. The following are real postpositions, which invariably follow the noun they govern, and for the most part require that noun to be in the Formative:

```
بنا binā, 'without' (Sanskrit vinā).

par, 'on,' 'upon' (S. upari).

tak, 'till,' 'up to,' 'as far as,' 'inclusive' (S. daghna?).

تكن tak, 'till,' 'up to,' 'to' (S. sthāne:—ta'īn governs the genitive).

suddhān, 'along with' (S. sārddham).

samet, 'together with,' 'having' (S. sameta).

se, 'from,' 'with,' 'by' (S. saehā, or perhaps the Prāk. gen. affix he).

kar, 'by means of,' 'on account of,' 'by the name of,' (S. krite).

ko, 'to,' 'for the sake of,' 'for,' etc. (S. krite).

ke (= 5 ko), 'to' (S. krite?).

Lie, 'for the sake of,' 'for' (from the S. root rā, 'to give:' it generally governs the genitive).

men, 'in' (S. madhye).
```

239. The following postpositions¹ (and perhaps others besides), when they follow a noun, may optionally govern it in the Formative or the Genitive:

باهِر bāhir, 'without,' 'outside' (S. vahis).

bāhir, 'without' (governs the Formative of pronouns and verbal nouns).

pār, 'on the other side of,' 'aeross.'

pās, 'near,' 'at the side of.'

pīchhe, 'behind' (S. paśchāt).

إلان tale, 'under,' 'underneath' (S. tale).

muwāfik, 'suitable,' 'according' (to).

E.g. دروازه کے باہر darwāze bāhir (or دروازه کے باہر bāhir), 'outside the door;' أس بغير 'us bagair, 'without him;' باذشاه پاس 'across the river;' باذشاه پاس 'bādshāh pās, 'near or with the king;' سنجه پاس 'mujh pās, 'near or

with me; بيت پيچېي pīlh pīchhe, 'behind (one's) back; '
يت بيت بيجېي pālh pīchhe, 'behind (one's) back; '
ياؤں تلے hājat muwāfik, 'suitable to (one's) need.'

But if they precede the noun, they invariably govern the Genitive: e.g. میري پاس mere pās; کے bāhir darwāze ke; بغیر اُسکے ba-gair uske; بغیر اُسکے tale pā'on ke; موافِق حاجت کے muwāfik hājat ke.

Rem. When, however, بغير ba-gair governs a verbal noun or an abstract substantive with the force of a verbal noun, this is put in the Formative, even if the postposition precedes: as بغير تحقيق كيس له ba-yair taḥķīķ-kiye, 'without having ascertained,' بغير پروانگي ba-yair parwā-nagī, 'without permission.'

240. The following are the principal prepositions, or postpositions, which, being masculine nouns in the Locative, Ablative, or Λecusative case, require the affix ≤ to be used with the Genitive they govern:

1) Hindi.

قروب 'before,' 'in front' (Sanskrit agre).

ال تومير 'āge, 'before,' 'in front' (S. upari).

ال تومير bharose, 'in reliance on,' 'trusting to' (S. bhadra + āśā).

ال إلى bhal, or بال bal, 'with—downwards or foremost' (S. bhara).

ال تومير bāch, 'in the midst of,' 'among.'

ال pare, 'beyond' (S. pāra).

ال sāth, 'with,' 'along with' (S. sārdham).

ال sāmhne, 'in front of,' (S. sam + mukha).

sire, 'at the extremity of,' (S. śiras). سنگ sang, 'along with' (S. sanga). kane, 'to,' 'near to' (S. karna, 'edge'). mare, 'on account of,' 'through' (lit. 'stricken with,' from mārnā). nīche, 'under,' 'underneath,' 'below' (S. nīche). ماته hath, 'by the hand of,' 'by' (S. hasta). , le hān, 'at or to a place or house' (S. sthānc).

2) Persian.

andar, 'inside of,' within' (= S. antara). برابر barābar, 'on a level with,' 'equal to' (bar + \bar{a} + bar. 'breast to breast'). بنابر banābar or binābar, 'on account of' (Ar. bina, 'huilding' + prep. bar, 'upon'). jez, 'except,' 'with the exception of,' (contraction of $jud\bar{a} + az$).

¹ We must here protest against the use of يبان yahān in place of المَان hān by European grammarians. However "idiomatic" it may appear to them, and in spite of the countenance given to it by the usage of the Bay-o-bahār, and other works written about the same time, any one who has hved in India, and attentively observed the speech of the natives, can assure them that hān, and not yahān, is always used in the sense of place absolutely. e.g. fivane sahib-ke han jana, 'go to such-andsuch a gentleman's place or house.' The following extracts on the use of han are from the Urdu Grammar of Manlavi Imam Baklish of the Dehli College: Examples of adverbs of place. han of the of place. han of هاں تنها اهل شاهجهان آباد کی زبان میں بہُت '; place absolutely مُسْتعْمل هَي - جبسے هم تمهاري هال گئے تهے - يا وُد هماري هال آئے 'Hān alone is commonly used in the language of the people of Dehli: e.g. Fam tumhāre hān ga'e the, or with hamare hān ā'e the.

The following passage is extracted from a copy of the 'Aligarh (Allygnrh) Institute Gazette: ham musalmanoù aur hindu'où donoù ki us atish-bazi ki nisbat likhte hain jo unke hän shādī men hotī hai.

We may add that in the matter of this use of han, 'he people of Lakhnau are at one with their brethren of Dehli, and hence its uniform usage in all parts of Hindüstän proper.

The more common form in which the Persian prepositions occur is that of an inseparable (and genuine) preposition prefixed to a Persian or Arabic noun; the compound in such cases being equivalent to the Hindī ablative or locative case: e.g.

از رُوي المتابعة الم

3) ARABIC.

bris, 'because of.' باعث badle, 'in exchange for.'

```
نعد b'ad, 'after.'
     hawale, 'in the charge or care of.'
      خلاف khilāf, 'in opposition to.'
     غريے <u>zariye</u>, 'by means of,' 'through the medium of.'
              zimme, 'under the charge or responsibility of.'
        سم sabab, 'because of,' 'by reason of.'
         siwā, مَسُوا siwā, ) 'over and above,' 'besides.'
              selle 'alāwa, 'in addition to,' 'besides.'
          'iwaz, 'instead of,' 'for.'
              'kabl, 'before.'
       يب karīb, 'near.'
            الْدُنْةِ الْمَانَةُ الْمَانِةُ الْمَانِيةُ اللَّهُ اللّ
      muta'allik, 'depending on,' 'connected with.'
         mushābih, 'like,' 'resembling.'
mūjib, 'because of,' 'by reason of.'
      muţābik, 'in conformity to.'
      muwāfiķ, 'agrecable or suitable to' (also governs the
                                            Formative).
```

241. A few of them are compounds, consisting of an inseparable preposition prefixed to a noun in the genitive, or of a preposition following a pronoun: e.g.

```
بدُون bidūn, 'without' (prep. bi + dūn).

pigair (or with pers. prep. ba-gair), 'without.'

nā-bain, 'what is between' (from mā + prep. bain).

mā-t iḥt, 'that which is under' (mā + prep. taḥt).
```

Siwā is regarded by native grammarians as an exceptive particle, united as muzāf, or determined noun, to another noun. The same is the case with the words by warā and had mā-warā, 'beyond,' 'except.'

- 242. The following are a few examples of prepositions or postpositions which are originally *feminine* nouns, and hence require the affix $\geq ki$ with the genitive they govern:
 - 1) Hindi: joy or, 'towards,' in the direction of.' jagah, 'in place of,' in the room of.'
 - 2) Persian: بابت bābat, 'concerning,' for,' on account of.' ياني zabānī, 'from the mouth of.'

 ba-jihat, 'on account of,' 'by reason of.'

 ba-daulat, 'by means of.'
- 243. The feminine prepositions, when they precede the governed noun, require $\leq ke$ for the genitive affix of that noun: e.g. طرف جناز کی طرف بناز کی الله jahāz kī laraf, when the word taraf follows the governed noun): similarly بمدد اُسکی mānind larke ke, 'like a child,' بمدد اُسکی کی mānind larke ke, 'like a child,' بمدد اُسکی که mist sher-ke, 'after the likeness of a tiger,' although the words mānind, madad, and mist are feminine. This construction will be more fully noticed in the Syntax.

GENUINE PREPOSITIONS.

244. These are borrowed from the Persian and Arabic.

a) Persian. •

jl az, 'from,' 'by,' 'with.'

or & ba, 'with,' 'by,' 'in,' etc. (the former being the inseparable form).

bā, 'with,' 'along with.

be, 'without.'

bar, 'on,' 'upon' (= Sanskrit upari).

btā, 'till,' 'up to,' 'as far as.'

dar, 'in' (contracted from andar).

Rem. To these some add pesh, 'before,' zabar, 'over,' and zer, 'below;' but the first is an adverb, and generally takes the preparation at after it; as pesh az $\bar{z}in$, 'prior to this,' 'before this;' and the two last are compounds: e.g. zabar = az or zi + bar; $zer = zi + \bar{z}r$.

b) Arabic.

245. The Arabic prepositions are of two kinds; separable and inseparable.

1) Inseparable.

bi, 'in,' 'at,' 'by,' 'with,' etc. ($bil\bar{a} = bi + \text{neg. } l\bar{a}$, 'not,' = 'without'). bi, 'to,' 'for,' 'on account of,' (before pronom. suffixes it becomes la). bi, 'as,' 'like.'

2) SEPARABLE.

اللي 'ind, 'beside,' 'near,' 'by.'

الما 'ind, 'beside,' 'near,' 'by.'

الما 'ind, 'beside,' 'near,' 'by.'

إلما 'ind, 'beside,' 'near,' 'about.'

إلما 'ind, 'into,' 'among, 'about.'

الما 'ind, 'beside,' 'near,' 'about.'

الما 'ind, 'beside,' 'near,' 'about.'

| ma' or der ma'a, 'with,' 'along with.'

| with.' out of,' 'from.'

246. These prepositions generally occur in Arabic and Persian phrases, but they are occasionally prefixed to Hindī nouns, which are then put in the Formative or the Genitive: e.g. پیشاور سے تا کلکتے peshāwar-se tā kulkatte, 'from Peshāwar to Kalkattā (Calcutta);' سے هاتھي کے "ma' hāthī ke, 'together with the elephant.'

III. CONJUNCTIONS.

247. Conjunctions may be divided into the following classes:

1) Connective.

2) Adversative.

أيك bal-ki, 'but rather,' 'on the نوبيى to bhī, 'even then,' 'still.' contrary.'

3) Exceptive.

magar, 'unless,' 'except,' 'save' (=
$$ma$$
, 'not' + gar , 'if').

 $\sqrt[n]{l} ill \bar{a}, 'except,' 'save' (= in , 'if' + $l\bar{a}$, 'not').$

4) Conditional.

5) Concessive.

agar-chi, 'although.' بس به pas, 'then.'

تو, 'then.' کوکه go-ki, 'although.'

6) CAUSAL.

az-bas-ki, 'inasmuch as.' چُونَّكِهُ مُسْسَله ba-d-ān-ki, 'forasmuch as.' کيونَّكِه kyūn-ki, 'because.'

7) Conclusive.

پنابران banā-bar-ān, 'on that ac- پنبر phir, 'then,' 'therefore.'

يس pas, 'hence.'

اللّٰذِ li-hāzā, 'for this reason.' 'therefore.'

8) FINAL.

لَّا tā, and عَلِلْ tā-ki, 'to the end that,' 'in order that.' ma-bād-ā, 'lest,' lit. 'may it not be.'

IV. INTERJECTIONS.

248. Interjections are mostly sounds or cries expressive of emotion. They may be divided into the following classes:

1) Assent.

E.g. هاں $h\bar{u}i$, or څون $h\bar{u}i$, 'yes!' اچپا $achchh\bar{a}$, 'very well!' جي $j\bar{i}$, 'yes!' (respectful).

2) APPROVAL;

as شاباش shābāsh (= شاد باش shād bāsh, 'be happy!'),
'bravo!' ها، بقط wāh, 'well done!' 'bravo!'

3) Sorrow or Pain;

as اري are, 'Oh!' (always used as an affix); (always used as an affix); $\bar{a}h$, 'ah!' وا رَيلا $b\bar{a}e$, 'alas!' وائي $v\bar{a}e$ and وائي $v\bar{a}-wail\bar{a}$, $v\bar{a}e$

'woe!' 'alas!' انَّسوس 'afsos, 'pity!' 'alas!' حَيف haif, 'ah!' 'alas!' (chiefly used in poetry).

4) SURPRISE;

5) Aversion or Contempt;

as چي $chh\bar{\iota}$, 'fie!' در 'dur, 'away!' 'avaunt!' عي ure, 'O!' (you fellow).

6) Longing;

as كَاشُكِ kāsh-ki, or كَاشُكِ kāsh-ke, 'would that' (utinam!).

7) Desire for the Presence or Attention of a Person; as يا ai, 'O!' او, 'O!' هوت 'hot, 'Ho!' (vulgar,—always follows the object of address) اري are, 'O!' 'Ho!' لي الو, or الو te, or الو الو, or الو الو, or الو

CHAPTER V.

DERIVATION OF WORDS.

- 249. We purpose, in this chapter, to treat of such Hindī themes as have been derived by modifying forms obtained from the Sanskrit through the Prākrit, as also such as are derived by rules peculiar to the Hindī. With unmodified Sanskrit forms, such as pālak, ānandit, balwān, gopāl, etc., which occur in modern Hindī, we have little or no concern. For Persian and Arabic themes we must refer the reader to the section on Persian and Arabic constructions.
- 250. Derivative words may be classed under the two heads of *primary* and *secondary* formations, according as they are derived from *verbal roots*, or from *nouns*.
 - I. ABSTRACT NOUNS.
 - a) PRIMARY FORMATIONS.
- 251. The simple root of a verb is, in many cases, used as an abstract substantive: e.g.

¹ Nothing like an attempt to give all the themes occurring in Hindī is here made. This would be an almost impossible undertaking, so great is the change which the wear and tear of centuries, so to speak, has effected in most Hindī words. The afflixes noticed are mostly those of frequent occurrence, respecting which there can be no doubt, whatever difference of epinion may exist as to the sources from which they are derived. We would observe also that, as in the case of the pronominal series ab, kab, jab, etc., it is highly probable that one derived affix has, in each case, served as a model for others, and that these have been used even with words of non-Aryan origin.

In a few words the root vowel is lengthened: e.g.

252. Other abstract nouns are formed from the root, with or without lengthening the root vowel, by means of the following affixes:

1)
$$\stackrel{\cdot}{=}$$
 \bar{a} (= S. affix a); as—

Rem. In some instances the mase, termination \bar{a} is changed to the fem. $\bar{\imath}$, to express some slight difference of signification; as $pher\bar{\imath}$, going about, 'hawking.'

The first of these is found in infinitives. Examples of the second are:

In the third the vowel of the affix an is lengthened: e.g.

Here may also be noticed the affix $z = \bar{\imath}$, which is added to the roots of causal verbs to signify 'cost of,' 'expense for,' etc.; for the sister

arrange.'

dialects afford proof of this affix being a mere contraction of i, the fem. form of the affix i $n\bar{a}$: e.g.

يسُوائِي piswā'ī, 'price paid for grinding' بِسُوائِي pīsnā). وَيِسُنا) وَ charā'ī, 'price paid for grazing'. (خوائي charānā). كُولْنِي dhulā'ī, 'price paid for washing' دهُلانِي dhulānā).

3) تى
$$t$$
; تى $t\bar{t}$; (= S. affix ti); as—

يت bachat, 'residue;' Inf. بيرنا. bachnā, 'to be left.' بيرتنا به barhtī, 'increase;' بيرتنا barhaī, 'to increase.' بيرتنا bharnā, 'to increase.' بيرتنا bharnā, 'to fill.' بيرتنا rangat, 'colourig,' 'colour;' بيرتنا rangaā, 'to colour.'

Rem. The affix $t\bar{\imath}$, as will appear further on, is also employed in secondary formations.

The original of all these forms is the Sanskrit affix atu (which Bopp traces to the infinitive affix tu): the first, though common in the Urdū and Hindī of Southern India, is rarely used in the North, where the second and third (in which h and w are euphonic) are very common. Examples are:

المعتسبادة المعتادة المعتادة

هجارت sajāwat, 'preparation,' 'arrangement;' ,, العارت sajānā, 'to

In the case of the affix $\tilde{a}'o$, the t of the affix atu has been elided, and the final vowel lengthened. It is an affix of very frequent occurrence. Examples are:

bachā'o, 'protection,' 'defence;' Inf. کینا bachnā, 'to escape.'

charhā'o, 'ascent;' , پتاهائ دهراهائ دهراها دهراهائ دهراهائ

- Rem. a. Many masculines in \bar{a} 'o have corresponding feminines in \bar{a} 'ī, with the same signification; as $= charh\bar{a}$ 'ī, 'ascent.'
- Rem. b. The affix $\bar{a}hat$ (differently derived however) is also employed in secondary formations, as will be shown further on.
- Rem. c. The affix $\tilde{a}'o$ often takes the form $\tilde{a}w\tilde{a}$ in rustic speech: ".g. chhorawa, 'release.'
- Rem. d. Native grammarians add $\bar{a}p$ or p to the affixes forming abstract nouns from verbal roots; but we cannot find this termination in any word except $mil\bar{a}p$ (the only example adduced by them), and this is in all probability a mere modification of the Sanskrit $mel\bar{a}paka$.
 - b) Secondary Formations.
- 253. Abstract nouns are derived from substantives and adjectives by means of the following affixes:

¹ This affix is incorrectly written $\bar{a}ac$ by some of the grammarians. It is usual in Hindi, no doubt, to represent final o, after a vowel, by $\overline{\bullet}$, but this is a more compendium scriptara; the letter is pronounced o all the same.

2) تى
$$t\bar{\imath}$$
 (= S. affix ti).

This affix, as we have shown, occurs in primary formations; an example of a secondary formation is—

Rem. It is possible however that the origin of this affix is the Sanskrit affix $t\bar{a}$.

3)
$$0 \leq \bar{a}n \ (= S. \text{ affix } iman).$$

This affix is derived by eliding the initial i and the m of the Sanskrit affix iman. It forms abstract nouns from adjectives denoting an inherent quality, but it rarely occurs in Urdū; one example is—

Rem. In a few Hindi words the affix iman takes the form $m\bar{a}$: e.g. $garim\bar{a}$, 'weight,' importance.'

The origin of all these affixes is the Sanskrit affix tva; e.g. 1) $tva = vva = ppa = p\bar{a}$: 2) tva = Prākrit tvaņa = vvaņa = ppana = pan and $pan\bar{a}$: 3) $tva = tta = tta = \bar{a}t$, whence $\bar{a}hat$, by insertion of h for cuphony. They are all of frequent occurrence. A long vowel in the base may be shortened, and a final vowel dropped, before the affixes $p\bar{a}$, pan, $pan\bar{a}$ are added: e.g.

أَوْرُها لَيْ buṛhā-pā, 'old age,' from المُورُّها būṛhā, 'old,' 'an old man.' أَوُرُها لِين būṛhā-pan, chhoṭā-pan, 'littleness,' 'infancy,' 'childhood,' from چهوٿا پي chhuṭā-pā, chhoṭā, 'little.'

التِكْين larak-pan,) 'childishness,' 'childhood,' from التِكْين larkā-pan,) 'child.'

chiknāhat, 'greasiness,' 'smootnness,' from چگناهت chiknā, 'greasy,' etc.

* karwāhat, 'bitterness,' from كروا karwā, 'bitter.' كرواهت

Rom. The word التركين is generally pronounced larkpan by the natives of India; but the dictionaries all give the pronunciation as larakpan.

5)
$$\stackrel{\smile}{\smile}$$
 $ak (= S. \text{ affix } ika).$

The original affix *ika* is employed in Sanskrit to form adjectives; but in Hindī and Urdū it is occasionally used to form abstract substantives: *e.g.*

نَّاتُ الْعَنْدُك thandak,) coolness,' lit. 'that which makes coolness' الْعَنْدُهِمْ thandhak,) (عَنْدُهُمْ thandhak,)

The origin of this affix is probably the Sanskrit noun $\bar{a} \pm \bar{a}$, desire. It is added to a few nouns to form abstract substantives, a long vowel in the base being shortened before the affix is added, and final \bar{a} coalescing with the \bar{a} of the affix: e.g.

سَائِهُ miṭhās, 'sweetness,' from مِيةً mīṭhā, 'sweet' (S. mishṭāśā). خِتًّا مُعْمَاسِ khaṭās (or khaṭṭās), 'acidity,' from كَبُتًّا مُنْ khaṭās (or khaṭṭās), 'acidity,' from كَبُتًّا مُنْ

II. NOUNS OF AGENCY, ATTRIBUTIVES, POSSESSIVES, APPELLATIVES.

a) PRIMARY FORMATIONS.

254. The original of these affixes is the Sanskrit affix aka; whence by elision of ka, and compensatory lengthening of the preceding vowel, the affix \bar{a} is derived; thence $w\bar{a}$ and $h\bar{a}$ by prefixing w and h for euphony. Again, by elision of k, the form $ay\bar{a}$ is obtained, and this is changed, through the influence of y, into $aiy\bar{a}$, in which ai is pronounced more like $a\bar{a}$ than as the diphthong ai: from $aiy\bar{a}$, by prefixing a euphonic w, the affix $waiy\bar{a}$ is obtained. They are all added to verbal roots to form nouns of agency, and attributives: e.g.

لَهُونَّجا bhūnjā, 'a parcher' (of grain), as in بِهُونِّجا bhar-bhūnjā, from an obsolete بِهُونِّجا bhunjnā, 'to parch.'

gherā, 'a fence' (S. grāhaka, 'inclosing,' etc.), from گئيرڙا ghernā, 'to surround.'

dewā, 'giving,' 'a giver' (S. dāyaka), from ديوا denā, 'to give.' المينا lewā, 'taking,' 'a taker,' from لينا lenā, 'to take.'

charwā-hā, 'a grazier,' from چَرُواها جُرُواها bantwaiyā, 'a sharer or divider,' from بنَقُولنا bantwaiyā, 'a sharer or divider,' from بنقوانا bantwānā, 'to portion out.'

gawaiyā, 'a singer,' from گريّا gānā, 'to sing.'

In a few words the Sanskrit affix is preserved intact: e.g. گایک gāyak, 'a singer;' گاهنگ gāhak (S. grāhaka), 'a taker or seizer.'

These affixes correspond to the Sanskrit affix uka, the k of which is elided, and the preceding vowel lengthened by way of compensation. They are used to form nouns of agency and attributives: e.g.

بگازُو bigārā, 'a spoiler,' 'a ruiner,' from بگازُو bigārā, 'to spoil.' بگازُو bhulā'ā, 'misleader,' 'misleading,' from بُهُللُو bhulānā, 'to mislead.' بهُسُللُو phuslā'ā, 'a coaxer,' from يُهُسُللُو phuslā'ā, 'a coaxer,' from كمانا kamā'ā, 'carning much,' 'laborious,' from كمانا retā'ā, 'a filer,' 'a polisher,' from ريتوا retā'ā, 'a filer,' 'a polisher,' from ريتوا بيداه.

The original of these affixes is the Sanskrit affix $\bar{a}ku$, the k of which is elided in the last, and the u lengthened. They form nouns of agency and attributives: c.g.

پَراک pairāk, 'a swimmer,' from پَيرُنا pairnā, 'to swim.' لـراک اarāk, لـراک المال المال

بكاؤ bikā'ā, 'for sale,' from بكنا biknā, 'to be sold.'

kasā'ū, 'astringent,' from كَسْنا kasnā, 'to bind or tighten.'

4) اڑي
$$\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}$$
, or اڑي $\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}$.

These affixes probably spring from the Sanskrit affix $\bar{a}ru$. They form verbal adjectives (few in number) denoting habitual action or occupation: e.g.

يُوجارِي pūjārī, 'a worshipper,' from پُوجارِي pūjnā, 'to worship.' کھیلنا khilūr, 'given to playing,' 'playsome,' from کھیلنا khelnā, کھلاڑي khilūṛī, 'to play.'

Rem. The affix $\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}$ may perhaps be derived from the Sanskrit $k\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}$ ($k\bar{a}rin$); in which case the above words would be secondary formations from the substantives $p\bar{u}j\bar{u}$, 'worship,' and khel, 'play.'

These affixes, which correspond to the Sanskrit affix ana, form attributives, or instrumental nouns: e.g.

بيلن belan, (a rolling pin,' lit. 'that which rolls.'

بيلن belnī, (a rolling pin,' lit. 'that which covers.' اوڙهني oṛhnī, 'a covering,' 'a veil,' lit. 'that which covers.'

إن a rattle,' lit. 'that which rattles.' بيني dhaunknī, 'bellows,' or 'that which blows.'

الموائل الم

6)
$$\forall t\bar{a} \ (= S. \text{ affix } at).$$

This affix is used to form imperfect participles : e.g.

hansnā, 'to laugh.' منسنا hansnā, 'to laugh.' ديكهنا dekhtā, 'seeing,' from ديكهنا dekhnā, 'to see.'

$$1 - \bar{a}$$
 (= S. affix ta or ita).

This is used to form perfect or passive participles: e.g.

لَيْنَا likh-nā, 'written,' from لَيْنَا likh-nā, 'to write.' الله hārā, 'lost,' 'overcome,' from هارا hār-nā, 'to lose,' etc.

b) SECONDARY FORMATIONS.

1)
$$= iy\bar{a}$$
, or $= iy\bar{a}i$.

255. The original of this affix is the Sanskrit affix ika, the k of which is elided, and y inserted for euphony. It is used to form nouns of agency and attributives: e.g.

bakheriyā, 'quarrelsome,' 'a brawler,' from ابكهـــرِّيا bakherā, 'a dispute,' etc.

" gadariyā, 'a shepherd,' from گاٿر gadar, 'sheep.'

مكنينيا makkhaniyā,) (a butterman,' from مكنينيا makhaniyān, 'butter.'

Rem. The Sanskrit affix is preserved intact in the word کوټک khaṭṭik, or کوټک khaṭṭik, 'one who kills and sells game,' (but now generally applied to) 'one who rears and sells poultry.'

This affix, which is one of frequent occurrence, springs from at least three different sources: namely—

a)
$$= S$$
. affix ika ,

forming nouns of agency, attributives, and appellatives; e.g.

جهولي jholī, 'a wallet' (S. jhaulika).
مراو المعارة بالمعارة بالم

b)
$$= \bar{\imath} = S$$
. affix $\bar{\imath}ya$ or iya ,

forming nouns denoting origin, relationship, etc.: e.g. bhāgalpūrī, 'of, or made at, Bhūgalpūr.'

سمُنْدرِي samundarī, 'pertaining to the sea' (samundar), 'marine. پهاتي pahāṛī, 'produced in mountains' (pahāṛ), 'a mountaineer.'

c)
$$= S$$
. affix in,

forming attributives and possessives: e.g.

برهني baṛha'ī, 'a carpenter '(S. varddhakin).

... باري bhārī, 'having weight,' 'weighty,' 'heavy,' from باري bhār, 'a weight,' 'a load.'

يبياري baipārī, 'a merchant,' from بَبيار baipār, 'traffic.' تيل telī, 'an oil-man,' from تيل telī, 'oil' (S. tailika and tailin). سالي mālī, 'a gardener' (S. mālin).

These affixes correspond to the Sanskrit affix uka. They are added to substantives to form attributives and nouns of agency, as in the case of primary formations: e.g.

This affix forms adjectives from substantives: e.g.

pyārā, 'dear,' 'beloved,' from پيار pyār, 'affection.' بيار pyārā, 'affection.' بيار pyārā, 'affection.' بخُوتُه jhūthā. 'false,' 'a liar,' ,, خُوتُه sachā or sachchā, 'true,' ,, sach, 'truth.'

5)
$$\stackrel{\frown}{}_{-}$$
 $\stackrel{\frown}{a}$, $\stackrel{\smile}{\downarrow}$ $\stackrel{\frown}{ya}$, or $\stackrel{\smile}{\downarrow}$ $\stackrel{\frown}{}$ $\stackrel{\frown}{iya}$, = S. affix ta or ita.

This affix is used primarily to form perfect participles; but it is also added to substantives to form adjectives or attributives: e g.

يياسا piyāsā, 'thirsty,' from يياس piyās. 'thirst.' مُركي dukhiyā, 'wretched,' 'afflicted,' from دُكي dukh 'sorrow,' 'pain.'

6)
$$l\bar{u}$$
, $l=S$. affix lu :

Forms adjectives or attributives from substantives: e.g.

jhagrālā, 'quarrelsome,' 'a brawler,' from جِكُّةِ الُو jhagrā, 'quarrel.'

ديال dayāl, 'compassionate,' from يال dayā, 'pity,' mercy.'

This affix, which corresponds to the Sanskrit affix $\bar{a}la$, is used to form possessives: e.g.

يال bhathiyāl, 'with, or having, the stream' (باتيا bhāthā). ياتيا bhathiyāl, 'grain mixed with barley as food for cattle,' lit. 'containing barley' (جو jau).

لتَّغِبال $lathiy\bar{a}l$, 'having a stick,' 'one armed with a stick ' ($l\bar{a}th\bar{t}$).

In a few words the original possessive signification is lost: e.g. الما ghariyāl, 'a gong,' lit. 'containing the hour' (gharī).

8)
$$\sqrt[3]{la} = S$$
. affix ra .

This affix forms adjectives from substantives: e.g.

اگلا aglā, 'preceding,' 'former,' from آگا āgā, 'the front,' etc. پنج pichhlā, 'hindermost,' 'latter,' from پنجن pēchhā, 'hindermost,' etc.

دهُندها dhundhlā, 'hazy,' 'misty,' from دهُندها dhundh, 'haze,' etc. ret, 'sand.'

 the Sanskrit affixes $\bar{\imath}r\bar{a}$, $\bar{\imath}la$, ura (ula), or $\bar{u}ra$. They form attributives and possessives, often signifying the possession of a quality in an intensive degree: e.g.

The original form of this affix is probably $ula\ (ura)$. It is used to form attributives denoting habit or disposition, and is found in a few words only; $e\ g$.

لَّ الْمَا اللهِ اللهِ اللهُ اللهِ اللهُ الله

The origin of this affix is the Sanskrit adjective sāra, which occurs at the end of compounds. It signifies 'full of,' pervaded with,' and is employed in both Hindī and Persian to form possessives or attributives: e.g.

¹ The terminations $er\bar{a}$, $el\bar{a}$, etc., are not always affixes; they often result from the elision of one or more letters in an original Sanskrit word, and lengthening of a short vowel on which the accent falls . e.g. sanper \bar{a} (i.e. sanp-her \bar{a}), 'a snake-catcher,' from the Sanskrit sanpa-hara. The word banela or banala, 'wild,' is probably derived in a similar way; it may, however, be formed by adding the affix $el\bar{a}$ to the noun ban, 'a forest.' These remarks apply to other terminations also: for example, $\bar{a}l$ in the word susr $\bar{a}l$, and $\bar{a}l\bar{a}$ or $v\bar{a}l\bar{a}l$ in the word $gv\bar{a}l\bar{a}l$, are not affixes, but the result of elision of one or more letters: susr $\bar{a}l = \mathrm{Sanskit} \ svasrv + \bar{a}luya$, 'father-in-law's house,' $gv\bar{a}l\bar{a}l$ (i.e. $go\bar{a}l\bar{a}l = \mathrm{S}$. $go-p\bar{a}la$, 'a cowherd,' and not $gau-v\bar{a}l\bar{a}l$, as Mr. Etherington (Hindi Grammar, p. 128) makes it out to be.

milan-sār, 'sociable,' 'affable,' from مِلْن milan, 'mixing with.' هُرَّ سَار sharm-sār, 'bashful,' from شَرَّ مُسار

12) اشا
$$\leq \bar{a}sh\bar{a}$$
, اسا $\leq \bar{a}s\bar{a}$ (= S. affix $\hat{s}a$).

The signification of this affix is 'full of.' It occurs in a few adjectives, some of which are used as substantives: e.g.

بتاشا $bat\bar{a}sh\bar{a}$,) 'a kind of sweetmeat,' 'a bubble,' lit. 'filled with air' $bat\bar{a}s\bar{a}$, $bat\bar{a}s\bar{a}$, $bat\bar{a}s\bar{a}$,

This affix is derived from the Sanskrit adjective $k\bar{a}ra$, signifying making, 'doing,' by elision of k, and is added to substantives to form nouns of agency, or nouns denoting trade or occupation: e.g.

مونار sonār, 'a goldsmi(h,' from سونا sonā, 'gold.' سونا lohār, 'a blacksmith,' from لوها lohā, 'iron.' لوها kumhār, 'a potter,' from كُمْيَا, kumbh, 'an earthen pot.'

This affix also, like the preceding, is derived from the Sanskrit kāra. It is added to inflected infinitives and to nouns to form nouns of agency, and, affixed to verbal nouns, forms future active participles (§ 160, 2): e.g.

مرنے هارا marne-hārā,) 'one who is dying,' 'one about to die,' from مرن هار maran-hār,) مرنا marnā, 'to die.'

lukaṛ-hārā, 'a wood-cutter,' 'a wood-man,' from لكزّ هارا الكرّ هارا a contraction of لكّزي الملابقة المناسبة المناسبة

The original of this affix is the Sanskrit affix vala. It is most commonly employed in Hindi and Urdū to form nouns denoting agency, possession, origin, and numerous other relations. Added to infinitives, it often forms future active participles. e.g.

چلنے والا جلنا chalne-wālā, 'a gocr,' 'one about to go,' from چلنے والا پری والا gāṛī-wālā, 'a carter,' from گاڙِي والا gāṣrī-wālā, 'a carter,' from گهر والا ghar-wālā, 'the master or owner of a house' (ghar).

makkhan-wālā, 'a hutter-man,' from ممكنين makkhan, 'butter.' ملكني والا dillī-wālā, 'an inhabitant of Dillī' (Dehlī).

Rem. Hindī nouns ending in \bar{a} must be inflected before the affix is added: e.g. $kapre-w\bar{a}l\bar{a}$, 'a cloth-merchant.'

This is not so much an affix as the latter part of a compound, signifying, 'place,' 'inclosure,' 'house,' 'garden,' etc. It is derived from the Sanskrit wāṭī. Examples are:

پنواڙي pan-wāṇī, 'a betel-garden,' from پنواڙي pān, 'betel-leaf.' پنواڙي phul-wāṇī, 'a flower-garden,' from پناواڙي phūl, 'a flower.' مشيوار satī-wāṇ, 'the place where a satī is burnt.' هڙوار hāṇ) are laid.'

III. DIMINUTIVES.

- 256. Diminutives are of frequent occurrence in Hindī and Urdū; in not a few cases, however, though the form is preserved, the diminutive signification is lost. In some instances, moreover, the original from which the diminutive is derived has become obsolete.
- 257. The idea of diminutiveness is frequently expressed by substituting the feminine termination for the masculine: e.g.

أَيْلي uplī, 'small cakes of dried cow-dung,' from uplā. ئوكرى tokrī, 'a small basket,' from tokrā. رسي rassā, 'a string or coid,' from رسي rassā, 'a rope.' Various affixes also are employed to form diminutives from nouns, as:

This corresponds to the Sanskrit diminutive affix ka, the k of which is clided, and the final vowel lengthened. • The connecting vowel of this affix is always i, which takes the place of a final vowel in the base, and a long vowel in the base is shortened before the affix is added: e.g.

بَّةِ biṭiyā, 'daughter,' from بِيَّةِ beṭī, 'daughter.' بِيَّةِ بِلِهِ phuṛiyā, 'a small boil,' 'a pimple,' from پُوَّةِ بِي phoṛā, 'a boil.' چَرِّي chiṛiyā, 'a bird,' from چَرِّي chiṛā, 'a bird.' لَهُوَّتُ khaṭiyā, 'a small bedstead,' from كَهَاتُ khāṭ, 'a bedstead.' (Sanskrit khaṭṭika).

Rem. In the towns, and especially by Mohammadans, the connecting vowel i is dropped, and such words are pronounced phury, chiry, etc.

This affix, like the last, is derived from the Sanskrit affix ka, the difference consisting in the connecting vowel, which in this case is u (changeable to w); and hence the difference of gender in words formed by means of the two affixes, those with $iy\bar{a}$ being feminine, and those with $\bar{u}'\bar{a}$ masculine. A long vowel in the base is shortened before the affix is added: e.g.

بِدُوا baṭū'ā or baṭwā, 'a small bag' (original not in use). biṭū'ā or biṭwā, 'son,' 'dear son,' from بِدُوا betā, 'son.' بِدُوا mardā'ā, 'a manikin,' 'a contemptible man' (mard).

The Sanskrit affix is preserved unchanged in a few words: e.g. فهولک dholak, 'a small drum' (dhol).

These affixes are all derived from the Sanskrit diminutive affix ra, r and l being interchangeable in Hindī. In the first two no connecting

vowel is used; but in the last two the connecting vowels are i and u respectively, which are lengthened to e and o on account of the accent. A long vowel in the base is generally shortened before the affixes are added. Examples are:

الْمِكْرِا thikrā,) 'a fragment of an earthen vessel' (original, thīk, obsolete).

إِلَّا الْكُتِّا !ukṛā, 'a small piece,' 'a bit,' from ṭūk, 'a piece.'

palangṛī, 'a small bedstead,' from palang, 'a bedstead.'

نَكُّرِي tangṛī, } 'a leg,' from ٿَنگُرِي tangrī, } 'a leg,' from ٿَنگُري tangrī, }

khujlī (for khajulī), 'itch,' from کیاج khāj, 'itch.'

يَّ ghanṭālī, 'a small bell,' from ghanṭā, 'a bell.'

murelā, 'a pea-chick,' 'a pea-fowl,' from مريلا baghelā, 'a tiger's cub,' 'a young tiger,' from بگييلا bāgh, 'a tiger.'

khatolā, 'a small, or rickety, bedstead' (khāt).

garolā (for garholā), 'a small, or dilapidated, fort,' 'a placo with such a fort,' from garh, 'a fort.'

gharolā, 'a small earthen pot' (gharā).

Rem. Some grammarians mention $e t \bar{a}$, and $o t \bar{a}$, as diminutive affixes, but these are simply contractions of the words $b e t \bar{a}$, 'son,' and $pot \bar{a}$ (from $p \bar{a} t$) 'son,' 'young:' e.g. $brahman-e t \bar{a} = brahman-bet \bar{a}$, 'a brahman's son,' 'a young brahman;' $hiran-ot \bar{a} = hiran-pot \bar{a}$, 'a young deer,' 'a fawn.'

IV. COMPOUNDS.

- a) Nouns with a Particle Prefixed.
- 1) Negative Prefixes : أ a, ن أ an, ن nā, بنر nir, ن ni.
- 258. The prefix a is used with adjectives, an chiefly with participles and gerunds, $n\bar{a}$ with adjectives or abstract nouns derived from adjectives. Examples are:

الجل a-chal, 'immovable.' التا a-thā, 'unfordable.' الحيد a-chet, 'thoughtless.' الكتا an-parhā, 'unread,' 'illiterate.' النياة an-parhā, 'unread,' 'illiterate.' النياة an-jāna, 'unknowing,' 'ignorant.' النياة an-sunā, 'unheard.' الماد المقادة ا

Rem. These particles are all of Sanskrit origin, and have the same signification as in Sanskrit, but a slight difference is observable in the use of the particle an, it being prefixed in Hindi to nouns beginning with either a vowel or a consonant. For other particles, such as dur or dush, etc., which rarely o cur in Urdū, and in Hindi only in words borrowed directly from the Sanskrit, we must refer the student to the Dictionary.

- 2) Qualificative Particles: سُ هن, 'well,' ڪُ ku, 'ill,' 'badly:' e.g. نال هن هندول هu-daul, 'well-shaped.' ڪُڏهب su-dhab, 'ill-shaped.' مُنْجيت عند su-chet, 'attentive.' مُنْجيت
 - 3) Possessive Particle: $\tilde{\omega}$ sa, 'with,' 'having.' (= S. saha).

Examples of this affix are not numerous in Urdū; the following are a few:

هويرا sa-werā, 'morning,' 'dawn' (= S. sa + vela, 'time').
هاڙهي sāṛhe, 'with a half' (= S. sa + arddha, 'half').
هاڙهي sa-chet, 'with caution,' 'mindful,' 'cautious.'

259. Compound nouns, though not nearly so numerous as in Sanskrit and Persian, are by no means few in number; but in no instance is a compound formed of more than two nouns. They may be classed under five

heads: Collective (corresponding to the Sanskrit *Dvandva*), Dependent Determinative (the Sanskrit *Tatpurusha*), Appositional Determinative (the Sanskrit *Karmadhāraya*), Numeral Determinative (the *Dvigu* of the Sanskrit), Attributive, or Possessive (corresponding to the *Bahuvrihi* of the Sanskrit).

1) Collective Compounds.

These consist of two words that would naturally be connected by a conjunction: e.g.

ليلا جنگا bhalū-changā, 'hale and hearty.'

ين رات din-rāt, 'day and night.'

kamtī-barhtī, 'deficiency and excess,' 'more or less.'

kahā-kahī, 'altercation.'

mā-bāp, 'father and mother,' 'parents.'

In many instances the conjunction is expressed: e.g.

أب و هُوا آب و هُوا آب و هُوا آب و هُوا

رات وين rāt-o-din, 'night and day.'

rāt-o-rāt, 'in the middle of the night,' 'all night long.'

And in some cases the place of the copulative conjunction is supplied by the Persian conjunctive particle \tilde{a} : e.g.

Under this head may also be classed the compounds in which one of the words is a meaningless one, used merely to rhyme or jingle with the other: as

الدلا بدلا adlā-badlā, 'exchange,' 'alteration.'
الروس پروس aros-paros, 'neighbourhood.'
الروس پروس المائل المائل

2) DEPENDENT DETERMINATIVE COMPOUNDS.

This class comprises compounds in which the last word governs the first, which is therefore always in the Formative. Such compounds are of frequent occurrence: e.g.

انْقا گهر antā-ghar, 'a billiard room.'

ankh-michaulī, 'blindman's buff,' lit. 'covering the eyes.'

angarkhā (i.e. ang-rakhā), 'a coat,' lit. 'body-protector.'

باگذور bāg-dor, 'a long rope by which horses are led,' lit. 'bridle-rope.'

يهڙ بهُونَّجا bhaṛ-bhūijā, 'a parcher of grain,' lit. 'one who parches (grain) in an oven' (bhat).

til-chatta, 'a cockroach,' lit. 'oil (tel)-lieker.'

ديس نكالا des-nikālā, 'banishment.'

پنچگې pan-chakkī, 'a water-mill.'

ريل گاڙي rel-gāṛī, 'a railway carriage.'

" بيوجيور bhoj-pūr, 'name of a town,' lit. 'the city of Bhoj.'

lakh-patī, 'rich,' 'a millionnaire,' lit. 'owner of a lac.'

3) Appositional Deferminative Compounds.

In these compounds the first word stands as the predicate of the second: e.g.

به منسائي bhal-mansa'i, 'humanity,' 'benignity.'

chor-bālū, 'a quicksand.' حيور بالو

تَالُونَ, rat-ālū, 'a yam,' lit. 'a red (or purple) root.'

"mājh-dhār, 'midstream.'

", mahājan, 'a banker,' lit. 'a great man.'

mahā-rāj, 'majesty,' 'excellency,' lit. 'great king.'

4) Numeral Determinative Compounds.

In these the first word is a numeral, which stands as a predicate of the following noun: e.g.

دوبهر do-pahar, 'midday,' 'noon.'

الله du-pattā, 'a kind of veil,' lit. 'two breadths.'

الله pach-maḥall, 'five stories.'

الله chār-ānkhen, 'the eyes of two people meeting,' lit. 'four eyes.'

الله chau-māsā, 'the rainy season,' lit. 'four months.'

الله chaurāhā, 'a cross road,' 'a place where four roads meet.'

5) ATTRIBUTIVE OR POSSESSIVE COMPOUNDS.

These always stand as predicate to a subject. The various determinative compounds may be used as possessives by changing them into adjectives. Examples are:

ادهمُوا ادهمُوا ادهمُوا ادهمُوا الهمُوا الهمُوا الهمُوا الهمُوا الهمُوا الهمُوا الهمَوا المَوا الهمَوا المَوا المَوا

Possessives may also be formed from such compounds as have a particle for the first member: e.g.

ه سَلُونا sa-launā, 'salted,' 'seasoned,' 'beautiful,' 'piquant.' كُدُهنگا ku-dhangā, 'unmannerly,' 'rude.'

PART III.-SYNTAX

CHAPTER VI.

I. OF THE PARTS OF A SENTENCE.

- 260. Every sentence (غَرُ a sum or total of words) consists necessarily of two principal parts, the subject, or that of which something is asserted, and the predicate, or that which is asserted of the subject.
- 261. The subject of a sentence is either a noun (substantive, or adjective used as a substantive, pronoun, or infinitive), or a pronoun implied in the verb; the predicate is either a verb alone, or a verb with an adjective or substantive annexed as a predicative noun, by which the subject is defined and described: e.g.

Rem. Urdū grammarians call the predicate of a sentence the مُسْند that which leans upon (the subject), or the attribute; and the subject, the مُسْند الله that upon which (the predicate) leans, or that to which something is attributed.

262. The verbs which are generally used in connection with a predicative noun subjoined, are غربي في, etc., and بخر, etc., or 'become,' and others which add some modifying idea (as duration, continuity, permanence, etc.) to the simple one of existence: e.g. نظرآنا 'to come out,' 'turn out to be;' نظرآنا 'to appear,' 'seem' (to be); نظرآنا 'to continue or remain;' نيشينا 'to sit down,' 'to be fixed or settled;' نجرتا 'to stay,' 'stand,' 'last,' and such like; as also the passives of verbs which signify to name, make, call, hold for anything, etc. (\$\§ 349, 351), to which the words which denote what a thing is named, what it is made, and for what it is held, are subjoined without any further addition: e.g.

even he became an idolater.' وَهُ بِيِي بِرَهْمِن هُو گَيا 'you did not become any one's friend.' تُو دُوست كِسي كا نَهُوا تَهَا 'eventually that same thought of آخِروُهِي سُوخِنا مِيرا صَحِيم نِكُلا mine proved correct.'

'my surmise proved correct.' ميرا منتصوب ٿهِبک بَيتها

whereby our business proves to be 'جس سے همارا کام عداوت کرنا bearing enmity.'

bearing enmity.'

' لَهُ مِرْتَا هَي لَمُ وَي كُوْمِي لَا لَهُ اللَّهُ عَلَي كُوْمِي كُومِي ك

it was not considered (held to be) وُهُ أَيْكَ أَيْسِيَ زِبانَ نَهِينَ سَمْجِهِي 'it such a language.'

263. Instead of being joined to a predicative noun in the nominative, the verbs تها, هُي, etc., may be combined with some other expression which serves to describe or

define them; as with a genitive, وَهُ بِرِّي قِيمت كَا هُي 'it is of great price; کلام چار طرح کا هی 'discourse is of four kinds;' or with a locative case, کِتاب گھر پر ھَی 'the book is at home;' or with a postposition and the noun it governs, زید کے پاس ایک چیتا کھی 'there is a leopard in Zaid's possession;' or with an adverb of place, to denote the place or relation in which a thing is, وُد يهاں هَى 'he is here,' شرَّر قریب تها 'the city was near;' or with an adverbial phrase which denotes way or manner, state or condition, which were with their 'جو بانہبی کے اندر سے سر نِکالے تھے heads out of (their) holes.'1 The following are used impersonally: أَيْسا هُوا 'it is well,' أَيْسا هُوا 'it happened thus.'

234. The same verbs, as also up and the other verbs alove cited, may also be used as self-subsistent (or attributive) verbs: as—

on others has fallen (exists) the أُوْرُون پـرهَي وُد ظُلْم جو مُجه پر tyranny which did not fall on me.' as long as the power of endurance شِكيبَ كِي جب تلك تهجي existed.'

'madness has happened to Nasih.'

Rem. A sentence of which the predicate is a self-subsistent verb is called by Urdū grammarians a verbal sentence (جَمَلُ فِعَلَيْهِ), the subject of which they term ناعِل, the agent, and the predicate, فِعْل the action or verb; whereas a sentence whose predicate consists of a

¹ Mr. Dowson (Urdū Grammar, page 113) finds fault with this sentence because it is not constructed thus i jin-ne bānbhī-ke andar-se sir nikāle the. The sentence is, however, quite correct. The mistake is Mr. Dowson's in supposing that the verb the is here used as an auxiliary. The phrase baibhī-ke andar-se sir-nikāle (hū'e) is the adverbial complement of the verb the, and shows the state or condition (hall) of the subject. Numerous examples of the same construction are to be found in the Khirad Afroz, as also in more modern works.

non-attributive verb (فِعَلِ نَاقِص an incomplete or defective verb), is called a nominal sentence (جُمَلُهُ إِسْمِية), and its subject is termed مُسْتِداً, the inchoative, its predicute, خبر the enuntiative or announcement. An affirmative sentence is called جُمَلُهُ فِعَلِيّة خبريّة or جُمَلُهُ فِعَلِيّة خبريّة according as it is a verbal or a nominal sentence; an imperative or interrogative sentence is called جُمَلُهُ إِنْشَائِيّة a sentence expressing a command or wish.

265. The predicate may be more accurately defined by adverbs and by substantives (or words used substantively) in certain cases (and by postpositions with their nouns) which denote the *object* of the action asserted, and the circumstances attending it: as—

(he) used to apply his mind intently) رعِیّت کِی داد رسِی میں خُوب to dispensing justice to his subjects.'

266. A substantive may be connected in a certain relation with another substantive, in order to define it more accurately: e.g. خاک کا قالب 'an earth-mould.' Substantives may also be defined or characterized more closely by adding to them other substantives descriptive of the same person or thing: as—

'the king of the birds, Shāh-murg' طائِروں کا بادّشاہ شاہ مُرّغ 'the sage, Bedpā'e, the Brāhman.'

The subjoining of these is called apposition, and that which is subjoined, the appositive ("" the follower").

Every substantive may also be defined by having an adjective (participle, or genitive) added to it: an adjective which is immediately connected with the substantive is called attributive (جلتي آگ 'a good man,' جلتي آگ 'my book'), to distinguish it from

that which is used as a predicative noun with a non-attributive verb: as کتاب اتبی هی (the book is good.)

267. If a determined noun (المراعة المورة ا

268. The predicate verb as (or the verb and predicative noun) is sometimes omitted, especially in poetry, and in brief proverbial sentences: e.g.

'no one either has any concern with ندکِسِي کو کِسي کے نفّے سے غرض نہ the benefiting, or anything to do with the injuring, of another.'

همارِي بلا کے ساتہ هُي or همارِي بلا سے علاقہ هَي =) همارِي بلا سے 'it rests with (concerns) my evil destiny.'

269. The predicate is also omitted in sentences which contain an imprecation; as—

سِر پر بر 'may sorrow befal thee' (lit. 'dust on thy head').

In such sentences the predicate is generally the Aorist of the verb يُؤنا to befal,' 'to alight on.'

II. OF THE ORDER OF THE WORDS IN A SIMPLE SENTENCE.

270. The most simple arrangement of the words is this, that the subject, with its adjuncts, stands first, and the predicate follows in such a way that the verb usually stands last, in order to combine the whole proposition (کام تام), while the object and the object of relation, or the predicative noun, with the other definitions of the verb (the ablative or locative ease, postpositions with their nouns, adverbs), are placed in the middle, the object generally preceding: e.g.

'Zaid's brother is very learned.' زَید کا بھائِی بڑا عالِم هَی 'Laid's brother is very learned.' وہ گھرکے اندر سے خبر سوتا تھا 'he was sleeping soundly in the house.' وہ گھرکے اندر سے خبر سوتا تھا 'each single sentence involves a thousand meanings.'

(I) so convinced my mind of the evil خیانت اور چوری کِی بُرائِی دِل of perfidy and dishonesty.' نابت کِی فرائِدی دِل 'the fear of their brethren prevents اور تَحْقیق سے مانِع هی the truth.'

But if the object be so closely connected with the verb as to form with it a so-called nominal compound, or if the other words used to define the predicate are considered of greater importance, or are first thought of, the object is placed nearest the verb: as—

he used to apply his mind intently 'وه رعِیت کِي داد رسِي میں 'he used to apply his mind intently to dispensing justice to his subjects.' 'our knowledge hinders us from (progress in) all affairs.'

271. If the verb has two objective complements expressed, one direct and the other indirect (§ 348), the latter generally precedes the former; but if the latter be the antecedent of a following relative, or in any way closely connected with what follows, or any stress be laid on the direct object, this is placed first: as—

نَّمُونُوع عَلَم كَا أَسِ كَبْتِ هَيس فَيسُ 'that thing which is treated of in a science is termed (lit. they term) science.' میں بیان کیا جاوی the subject-matter of that science.' وُد تَهیلِي أَسْكو دِکهلائِي

272. The simple arrangement of the words may however be so far departed from that the object may lead off the sentence, and this not only for the sake of emphasis, as is generally supposed, but even where no emphasis is desired: as مُوْرُ كُو مُودِنَ مَارَّنَا هُي 'Mohan is beating Kallū.' This is especially the ease if the predicative noun be in the locative, or if a noun in the dative or other case be used with one of the verbs بَنا , في , في , etc., to denote possession (§ 340): as—

'is there any one in the house?' گَهْرُ مَدِن كُونِّي آَدْمِي هَي 'is there any one in the house?' ناصِح كُو سَوْدا هُوا 'madness has happened to (possessed) Nāṣiḥ.' 'there is a leopard in Zaid's possession.'

The following are examples of a predicative noun, or an object being placed first for the sake of emphasis:

'Zaid is a fool.' احْمَق هَي زَيد 'Yaid is a fool.' احْمَق هَي زَيد '*where have you taken those books to?' أَن كِتَابُوں كُو تُو كَهَاں لِيه كَيا هَي 'whatever you say, that same (I) will do.'

The relative pronoun however, as objective complement, usually precedes the subject.

Rem. The object may even take the last place in a sentence if that be the most strikingly emphatic, or if it be desired to contrast it (or make it rhyme) with another object in a co-ordinate sentence: e.g. مال كو أور عاقِل كمال كو 'A fool seeks wealth, and a wise man perfection.' This construction, however, is generally regarded as irregular and feeble, and should not be imitated.

273. The arrangement of the words in an interrogative sentence is not generally different from that in an affirmative sentence: as گير مين گون هي 'who is in the house?' نسب كيا بات هي 'where is my book?' ميري كِتاب كهار هي 'what matter is this?' The interrogative particle ين is' often placed at the beginning of an interrogative sentence, as كيا توپ دگت گئيي 'what! has the gun fired?' or simply, 'has the gun fired?' But it is more commonly omitted (unless used simply to express surprise, reproof, etc.), and then, in the absence of an interrogative, the context alone must decide whether the sentence is interrogative or not. In conversation, the tone of the voice is always a certain indication.

Rem. The poetical arrangement of words is distinguished from that followed in prose by a much greater freedom, and also by the circumstance that it is regulated not only by the sense and emphasis, but often by the necessity of the verse. The freedom is shown in the circumstance, that words which are connected together in meaning, and in prose would stand together, are often separated, and words which in prose have a definite place assigned to them, are transposed to another part of the sentence. The following are examples:

when unbelief (what constitutes unbelief) has

وَهُ تَمْعَالَيْهِ مُسلّمانِي

been proved (impressed on the mind,
realized), it is a sign of true belief (Saudā).

'as long as the power of endurance existed,
as long as the force of restraint lasted
(Mūmin Khān).'

274. A Substantive or Adjective in Apposition (تابع the follower, or appositive) follows the noun to which it refers (the متبرع, that which is followed), and is put in the same number and case, the two nouns being treated as a compound phrase, and the governing postposition (if the nouns be in an oblique case) placed after the last alone: as—

'the boys are all come.' لَزِّکَ سَب آئِے هَيں 'the boys are all come.' کُنُو تيرا بِهائي باهر کهڙا هَي 'Kallū, your brother, is standing outside.' 'by my (lit. our) master Sindbād.' 'be beat Mohan's brother, Kallū.' 'the counsel of the sage Bedpā'e, the Brāhman.'

having gone to the bird-king, Shūh- طائِروں کے باڈشاہ شاہ مُرْغ کے murg.'

275. Similarly if two or more nouns are connected by asyndeton, or by an expressed conjunction, they are regarded as in apposition, and the postposition governing them in an oblique case is placed after the last alone: as—

'between the evil and the good of it.' أَسْكِي بُرائي بَهَالِئِي ميں 'between the evil and the good of it.' خیانت أور جوري كِي بُرائِي 'the evil of perfidy and dishonesty.' خیانت أور جوري كِي بُرائِي 'to (both) high and low of (your) subjects.'

276. If the nouns so connected be in an oblique case of the plural, the last alone is commonly (but not invariably) put in the Formative plural, the others taking the form of the Formative singular: as—

by the small and the great rejoicings 'by the small and the great rejoicings' were made.'

'in mountain caves and desolate places.'

Rem. Urdū grammarians, it may be observed, recognize six kinds of appositives (توابع): 1) تاکید the strengthening or corroboration, which is of two kinds; a) تاكِيدِ معنوي the corroboration in meaning, and b) تاکِیدِ لفظی the verbal corroboration, which consists in the emphatic repetition of the word itself, whether that word be a noun, verb, er particle. Examples of the first are : زَيد خُود آيا 'Zaid himself came,' لترك سب آئه هُيس 'the boys arc all come,' I will (immediately) send ' كِتاب كو بجنس آپ كے ياس بهيجتا هُوں the book itself to you.' The appositive in this case may be any word that strengthens the idea of totality or of self already contained in the or noun that is followed. Examples of the second kind are 'whatever words;' جو جو باتيں 'Zaid is come, Zaid;' زَيد آيا زَيد cach 'ایک ایک فِتْره' (what various misfortunes کیا کیا مُصیبتیں single sentence; مارا زَيد نے 'Zaid beat (him), beat (him); the description, نعت نے کیا 'Yes! Yes! I did (it).'—2) نعت the description, or the qualification. This may refer to the mathū' either directly, in which case it is a simple adjective, or indirectly, in which case it is an adjective sentence (a qualificative or relative clause), as كتاب جسكا the book, the leaf of which is torn.'—3) بدل (the book, the leaf of which is torn.'—3 substitution, or permutative, which is of four kinds; a) بدل کُل the sub-كُلُّو تيرا بهائِي ميري هان آيا تها stitution of the whole (for the whole); as ايا تها تها على ميري 'Kallū, your brother, came to my place;' b) بدل بعض the substitution of the part (for the whole), as پہاڑ ڈالا

book—I tore a leaf of it; 'e) بدل اِشْتِمال بدل اِشْتِمال بدل اَنْكَا جُرْدان اَنْجَا هَي this book, its wrapper is good; 'd) نجا في الله وermutative of error, as بدل غلط (we ought to go home, (I mean to say), to school.' The last three kinds of permutatives are common in colloquial speech, and the second and third in poetry also.—4) عطف بيان the explanatory apposition, which consists in the connection of a substantive with another which it more closely defines, as سرائج الدِّين بهادُر شاء 'Sirāju'ddīn (alias, or better known as) Bahādur Shāh.'—5) سرائج الدِّين بهادُر موهى 'Kallū and Mohan.'—6) تابع مُهمل (دوقي ووقي ووقي ووقي ووقي ووقي ' bread,' دانا دُنْكا ' grain.'

277. A Genitive may either precede or follow the substantive by which it is governed: as—

'the principal and the profit thereof.' اصَّل و نَفْح أَسَّكا 'the character of the newspaper.'

But if emphasis or contrast is desired, the genitive is usually placed before the governing noun; as وُد ميرِي كِتاب 'that is my book.'

278. When the governing noun is preceded by an attributive, the genitive may either follow the governing noun or precede the attributive: as—

its apparent wording or tenour.' ظاهِرِي عِبارت أُسْكِي 'its apparent wording or tenour.'

279. The genitive may even be separated from its governing noun by other words, as adverbs, interrogative pronouns, etc., so long as they do not make the construction ambiguous or obscure: as—

'how can I believe you ' مَيْن تيرا كيُونْكر اِغْتِبار كرُوں ' what is your name '

'what is your pleasure respecting it?' تیری اُسّمیں کیا مرضی کھی 'what is your pleasure respecting it?' (I) would have made of his skull a cup for the wild beasts of this desert to drink water out of.'

280. Adjectives.—The usual position for an attributive adjective is immediately before its substantive; as ذهبس 'a good man.' But if the adjective in any way particularizes the substantive, it usually follows, especially if other descriptive phrases accompany it: as—

bring good rice.' چاٽول اچها لانا 'bring good rice.' مست آويز پکِّي لِگهوالو 'have a sound acknowledgment (of the transfer) written.'

ٹاس کُوچے میں ایک حویلِي 'there is a very large house in that بڑی سِی ھی

lane.'
بَرِي سِي هَي المَد.'
(Lo!) it was (lit. is) an object white أور چِكَنِي گُنبد
and smooth, round like a cupola.'
(an Abyssinian, young, handsome,

an Abyssinian, young, handsome, ایک حبّشِي جوان خُوبْتُورت with an elegant head-dress nicely مُوئِد باهر نِکل آیا arranged, came out.'

- 281. Similarly the demonstrative pronoun, which usually precedes the substantive, may, for the sake of emphasis, follow it: as طبيب وُد اچّها هي جو 'He is a good physician, who,' etc. (lit. 'that physician is good,' etc.)
 - 282. Great emphasis may be given to an adjective by

separating it from its substantive, and placing it at the end of the sentence, so as to let it produce a more independent impression: as—

'there wasa very deep mountain gorge.' ایک پہاڑکا درہ تھا۔ نہایت عِیق

283. Adverbs.—An adverb which belongs to an adjective or another adverb almost invariably stands before it: as ایک نبایت عمین دره 'a very deep gorge.' So also an adverb which belongs to a verb usually stands immediately before it: as ایک نبایت عمین '(she) used to romp and play with them right merrily.' But it may be placed, for the sake of emphasis, at the beginning of the sentence, or inserted without emphasis between the more prominent words. If however a whole clause is qualified, it is placed at the beginning: e.g.

and inasmuch as his path had never اور چُونکِ پہلے کیبھی اُسکا گُذر lain that way before.

suddenly a verdant and very beautiful ' ناگہاں ایک جزیرہ سرسبز أور island came in sight.'

284. The negative particle, like other adverbs, usually precedes the verb; but if the tense be a compound one, it may also stand between the auxiliary and the participle: as—

ال was not aware of this.' میں یہد نہ جائتا تھا 'I was not aware of this.' میں یہد نہ جائتا تھا 'no one used to understand the Government regulations,' or lit. 'any one did not understand,' etc.

The negative is never used adjectively, but is always an adverb qualifying the verb in a sentence.

285. Conjunctions, as connecting and showing the relation between sentences, naturally precede the members they serve to introduce: as—

but still the capacity of manifesting 'but still the capacity of manifesting (itself) existed in it.'

(itself) existed in it.'

but this also is the opinion of certain 'ليكِن بعض عُقلا كِي يِهِ بعِي رائي sages.'

III. CONCORD OF THE SUBJECT AND PREDICATE.

- 286. The verb of the predicate agrees with the subject in number, person, and gender, unless it be of the form in which personal terminations are found, viz.: the Imperative, the Aorist, and the fragmentary verb هَيْ , فُون , etc.; these admit of no change of form to indicate gender: e.g. 'these admit of no change of form to indicate gender: e.g. 'the girl 'the girl 'the girl 'we (masc.) will read; 'هم يَرْهينَكِي 'we (masc.) will read; 'هم هُيْ (tit is I' (masc. or fem.); هم هُيْ (tit is we' (masc. or fem.).
- Rem. a. Not only are the personal pronouns as subjects often omitted, but a substantive as subject is also occasionally understood: e.g. 'life passed in great comfort,' where يَالَيُ or some similar word is understood.
- Rem. b. When a superior addresses an inferior, he frequently speaks of himself in the first person plural: e.g. هم آئينگ 'it is I;' هم هُين 'I will come.' Similarly another is commonly addressed in the second person plural, as in English; e.g. هم تُم كُون هو 'who are you?'
- 287. The predicative participle or adjective (if this admit of a feminine being formed from it) is regulated by the subject in gender, number and case; and similarly

every adjective (or genitive), whenever possible, agrees with the substantive with which it is connected: as—

(the prince stood (became stationary) شادزاده روش ير کهڙا هُوا on the walk.'

on the wark. " الماء من 'all the bees yield him obedience.' کرتی هَیں 'these misfortunes were written in (my) یے مُصِیبتیں قِسْمت میں لِکھی

destiny.'

desting. بيس ميلا گهيلا هو جاتا 'that dress too used to become dirty and tattered.'

'life is dear to one under all circum' جان هر حال میں پیاری هوتي

stances.' هَي stances.' when his desire was (became) satisfied.' you are (= thou art) an inhabitant of تُم دهّلي کے رمّنے والے هو

'all men are not alike.' سب آدوی ایک سے نہیں ہوتے

- Rem. a. When the subject is a noun (pronoun) which has the same form for the singular and plural (as in the last of the above examples), the predicate is a guide to the number of the subject.
- Rem. b. Perfect concord in number of the feminine participles in the above examples would require the forms لکھیں ,کڑتیں, but such forms are now obsolete. (§ 169, Rem.)
- 288. A plural predicate is often connected with a personal subject in the singular, as a mark of respect or politeness: as—
- His Majesty was (became) much مهاراج سُنكر بهُت خُوش هُوني pleased on hearing (it).'
 - your Honour's observation is to the point' (lit. 'your Honour observes justly').

289. Some Arabic plurals (broken and regular), as أخوال 'circumstances,' أسباب 'property,' 'articles,' نام 'investigation,' واردات 'a casualty,' and perhaps a few more, are commonly regarded as singular collectives, and connected with a singular predicate; others, as أوليا 'saints,' والما 'great men,' مشائح 'clders,' and one or two more, are used both in the singular and plural; in the use of these

Did space permit, we could here add the opinions of distinguished Dehli scholars also. It is to be hoped, however, that the above will suffice to show that the Bāg o bakār cannot be safely taken as a perfect representative of the Urdū of the present day.

¹ Misled by the repeated use in the $B\bar{\alpha}q$ o bahar of certain Arabic broken plurals with singular verbs, the European grammarians appear to think that all, or nearly all such plurals may be constructed with a singular predicate, or have a singular adjective connected with them. But so far is this from being the case that very few (perhaps not more than six or eight) of these plurals are used as singular collective nouns. تِ طَاوِّس مبن جواهِر جَزُوايا _ جَوَاهِر خريده the Bag o bahar we find and other instances of broken plurals treated as singular collectives which scholars of the present day by no means approve. The following remarks on the above constructions by a scholar of distinction, M. Shaikh 'Abdullah of Cawnpore, will show what opinion native scholars hold respecting them: حُونُكِ جواهِر جمع هي جِزُّوايا فِعْلِ مُنْرِد لانا صحِيم نهيس هي - صحيم جزِّوائي هي - مگر بعني النَّاظِ جمَّع كو أَرْدو ميں مُقْرد بھي مُسْتعْمل كَرْت هَيں - جَيس لقَّظِ أولِيا أورمشائِخ _ شايد نواح دهّلي مين جواهِر كوبهِي مُفَرد بولّت هون _ مگراِس طرف مُقْرد مُسْتعْمَل نہیں هوتا۔ نہ کِسی دِهْلِی والے سے سُنا نہ کسی کے کلام میں دیکھا۔ میر حس کی مشنوی میں ایک جگہہ جواهرجڙا آيا هي *

plural forms the student must be guided by the practice of the best modern writers. Examples are:

'as much property as there was in the house.' •

this is my case' (these are my circumstances). ميرا بيه اخوال هي 'I am a chief and a great personage 'I مُيس رئيس اور اكابِر اِس شهرر of this city.'

'investigation is taking place.' تَحْتِيقَاتَ هو رهِي هَي 'investigation is taking place.'

Rem. اسّباب is also constructed as a plural, especially when it signifies causes or means: e.g. اسّباب کیا هَیں 'what are the causes of this progress?'

290. If two or more subjects of different persons have a common predicate, the subjects are arranged in the order of the persons, beginning with the first, and the predicate is put in the first person plural if one of the subjects is of this person, and in the second person plural if the subjects are of the second and third persons: e.g.

let me and you run' (lit. us and you). هم تُم دَوَّرين 'I and the other (man) my companion 'مَين أُور وُه دُوسرا ميرا ساتهي fled thence.'

you and Mohan together (lit. having "ثم أور موهن مِلْكر أَسْكو مارو united) beat him.'

291. Two or more connected subjects of the third person (singular or plural), when they denote living beings, usually take the predicate (verb, participle, adjective) in the plural, and the predicate agrees with them in gender,

if they are all of the same gender; but if they are of different genders, the masculine is preferred: e.g.

'Mohan and Kallū came to my place.' موهن أور كلُّو ميرى هار، آئيے 'Amīran and Naṣṣban were going to أمِيرِتَى أور نصِيبن مذرس كو school.' جاتِي تَهِيں 'his mother and father are dead.' أَسْكُهُ مَا بَاكِ مَرْكُلُهُ هَيں

an old man and his old woman arrived 'ایک بُورِها اَور اُسْکی بُرِهِیا وهاں نہُنچے there.'

'male and female are found in date-نجنجُور کے درختوں میں بھی نرو trees also.'

Rem. If دونوں , سب , گچھ , کوئی, or any similar word is in apposition to the subjects, the verb of course agrees with it as its proper subject: as زن و فرزند کوئي ساتھ نہ جائيگا ' wife and children, no one will accompany (him).'

- 292. But if the connected subjects denote things or ideas (or partly living beings and partly things), the following cases arise:
- 1) If the subjects are all singular and of the same gender, the predicate agrees with them in gender, and may be put in the singular or plural, but the singular is preferred: as

from it spring cowardliness, mean- اُس سے بُز دِلِی اَور کم هِمَّتِی اَور سے غیرتی وَغَیرہ پَیدا ہوتِی spiritedness, and spiritlessness,' etc.

هَي or هوتي هَين sclfishness and covetousness 'خُود عَرضِي أور طَمْع غالِب '.dominate هُوتِي هَي dominate 'رُغّب أُور وقار جاتا رهّتا هَي

The predicate must however be put in the plural if one or more of the subjects is in the plural: as—

'(his) senses were not in proper order.' هوش و حواس بجا نه تهيے

2) If the subjects are of different genders, the predicate (verb, participle, adjective) usually agrees with the last in gender and number, but it may agree with the masculine even when it is not the nearest subject: e.g.

tranquillity and ease were visible on 'خاروں طرف امّن آور آسُودگِی all sides.' ''displeasure and vexation possess him' اُسّکو نا خُوشی آور رسّج هوتا هی

¹ These rules, as also many others laid down in these pages, will be found to differ materially from those of Forbes and other grammarians, who base their rules on the language of the Bōy o bahār as 1 other such antiquated works alone, quite ignoring the literature of the present period; as though Urdū had in no way changed or improved since the time of Dr. Gilchrist. Of this we shall have more to say elsewhere. We may here content ourselves with subjoining, in corroboration of what is stated above, the opinion of two distinguished scholars, the one an inhabitant of Dehlī, the other of Lakhnau:

اگر معطوف عليه مُذكّر هو أور مغطوف مُؤّتث تو فِعَل مب علامت مُؤّتث كِي لاحِق كرينگه ـ اور اگر معطوف عليه مُؤّتت أور معطوف مُذكّر شُوّتت كِي لاحِق كرينگه لاحِق كرينگه علامت مُذكّر كي لاحِق كرينگه Gram. p. 118.)

جہاں ایک فعل کے کئی فاعِل بعنیے مُذکّر بعنیے مُوَنّث هوں فِعْل کے مئی فاعِل بعنیے مُوَنّث هوں فِعْل کے مُذکّر اور مُوَنّث ینے میں مُتکلّم مُنتَمل فِعْل کا اِمْتبار کِیا جائے (M. Shaikh 'Abdullāh, Arabic Prof., Cawnpore Zha' School.)

جب حضرت شاه المحمل في المحمل المحمل

houses for travellers and lofty buildings are found constructed here and there.'

abstinence and content are found in it 'زُهْد و قناعت أس ميں إِتَّسْني to this degree.'

to this degree.' هي) الله to this degree.' نه معلّوم کِد باپ اَور نَوْکر اَور 'I have no knowledge as to where ' السّباب کہاں گیا ' father, servants, and property are gone.'

the clothes, plates, and books are 'کپڙي باس اَور کتابيس بهُت very good.'

respecting whom he spoke in so much نجسكي إلنني تغريف اور إشتاق praise, and evinced such longing.

(by me),' or 'I collected a large quantity of sticks and thorns.'

Rem. The last subject, though singular by form, may be plural in idea, in which case the predicate will be put in the plural; as عمل المعلق أبد المعلق المع

293. If the predicate consists of eq. 'to become,' 'to prove to be,' or one of the verbs mentioned in § 262, and a substantive, the verb is usually regulated in number and

gender by this substantive if it immediately precedes the verb, and is defined by a genitive or an adjective: as—

this crown and robe and (these) pearls و خنّعت اور دُرّ و جواهر موداگر کي پُونجي هو and jewels might make up the capital stock of a thousand merchants.' و منتي کي اُدهر باتس مِلاني اور 'putting together words (concoccing stories) from this side and that, and deceiving, becomes his habit.'

294. A declinable adjective which is connected as an attribute with two or more substantives of different genders usually agrees with the masculine if the substantives denote living beings; but if they denote things or ideas, it generally agrees with the nearest: as—

'such calamities and fearful places.' أيسي آفتس أور خطَّرناك مقام 'so much praise and longing.' النبي تعريف أور إشتماق

295. An impersonal proposition, by which the existence of an action or relation is asserted, without being referred, as predicate, to any noun for its subject, is formed 1) by the verb چاهیئے 'it is proper or necessary;' 2) by the verbs چاهیئے 'it is proper or necessary;' 2) by the verbs چاهیئے 'necessary,' etc., followed in each case by a subordinate proposition to which the assertion refers: as—

'it is necessary that he so deal with them.' حاهمت که اُن سے ایسا برتاؤ کري 'it is right that he act on this.'

CHAPTER VII.

THE ARTICLE; THE RELATIONS OF SUBSTANTIVES IN A SENTENCE, AND THE CASES.

- a) ON THE ABSENCE OF THE ARTICLE IN URDU.
- 296. Urdū, like Sanskrit and the modern Āryan languages, possesses no definite article: thus عبر may be translated by either 'house,' or 'a house,' or 'the house,' according to the context.
- 297. Some nouns however are in their very nature definite, e.g. پُورِب 'the sun,' نورب 'the East,' etc., and all proper names. Others are rendered definite—
- 1) by standing in apposition to a proper name; as کراچي 'the scaport of Karāchī;' حکيم بيڏپائي 'the sage, Bedpā'e.'
- 2) by standing in the relation of governing noun to a proper noun in the genitive, when this is explicatory (إنمانت بيانِبَ 'the country of Zerbād;' ويرّباد كا ديس the king of Greece.'
- 3) by being connected with the demonstrative pronouns, which, in many instances, may be properly rendered by the English definite article: as وُه كِتاب جِسْكا ورق پيٿا هُوا هي 'that, or the book, a leaf of which is torn.'

Rem. According to the native grammarians not only are all proper names, personal, demonstrative, and relative pronouns, definite or

determined (مغرف), but a noun which governs any of these in the genitive is also definite; thus موهن کا لڙکا significs properly 'the child of Mohan,' and not 'a child of Mohan's.'

298. If it be desired to point out a noun as indefinite, the numeral adjective ايك 'one, a, an' (called حرّف 'the indefinite particle') or the indefinite pronoun كوئي 'some one,' 'a certain one,' is employed for the purpose, with this distinction, however, that the former more commonly particularizes the substantive, implying that only one person or thing is understood, whereas the latter implies that some one out of many, or something not described, is intended: e.g.

knowledge is a good thing." عِلْم ایک اَجْمِي چِیزهَي پُرِهِي (knowledge is a good thing." نوب کو انجی بادشاد نے کِسِي زاهِد کو devotee.' کِسِي تالاب کے کِناری ایک بط

a duck used to remain by the margin رهنتي تعِي of some tank.'

299. If some indefinite portion or quantity of a thing is implied, the word خُچخ is placed before the noun in the singular or plural; as نازار سے کُجن جُوزا لے آنا bring some chickens from the market' (see § 399).

b) the relation of substantives in A sentence.

- 300. The relation in which a noun (substantive, adjective, participle, pronoun) stands to the other parts of a sentence, is denoted by its case, or by a postposition with its noun.
- 301. Nouns which stand in the same relation, stand also in the same case: e.g.

1) The appositive (tābi') and its matbū'; as هماري آقا 'iby our master Sindbād,' سِنْدْباد نيے 'a ser of oil;' ايک سِيگها زمِيں 'a yard of cloth;' ايک گزگڙا 'a bīghā of land;' لاکھ گهوڙي 'ten thousand horses.'

Rem. Nouns denoting measure or quantity are coordinate with the noun denoting the thing of which they form a part. Native grammarians, however, do not regard the two nouns as in apposition, but call the second of the two nouns the specification (تعريز) of the first. When a noun is preceded by a numeral adjective (عدد), it is termed or numbered. It is wrong to say of such nouns that "they are put in the nominative," for the two nouns may be in any case: e.g. what can be done with two sers of ght?'

- 2) Words which are connected by conjunctions, enumeration, and antithesis; as جاهل طلب کرتا هَي مال کو اَور عاقبل the fool seeks wealth, and the wise man perfection.
- 3) The word with which a question is put, and that which conveys the answer; as إس كو كس نه مارا 'by whom was he beaten?' ('who beat him?'), (مارا) مُرس نه 'by me;' سمن نه (مارا) 'whose house is this?' موهن كا 'for whom are you making (it)?' كس كه لِيتُه بناته هو 'for such-and-such a gentleman.'

I. THE NOMINATIVE CASE.

- 302. The Nominative is used to denote the subject of which a verb is predicated; مَين الزِّكوں كو پڙهاتا هُوں 'I teach boys,' or 'I am teaching the boys.'
- 303. The Nominative is also used as the predicative noun, 1) with verbs signifying to be or become, to prove, issue, turn out; as يَكْلُنا , هو سُكُنا , هو سُكُن

remain,' ناميرنا 'to stand or last,' etc.; 3) with passive verbs of naming, calling, making, esteeming, etc. (cf. §§ 262 and 351).

304. The Nominative is often employed absolutely to avoid the use of two or more consecutive nouns in an oblique case, and the case in which these nouns would stand is then taken by a following pronoun or pronominal adjective. This construction is also commonly employed when attention is called to the subject (with which the following pronoun is put in apposition), or when a relative explanatory sentence is inserted between the nominative and the verb: e.g.

یا کِسِی کی بد اِعْتِنادی کا فِکْر كَرْنَا أُورِ عَلَيْلِ هَٰذَا ٱلْتِيَاسِ _ سب غيبت ميں داخِل هي

'to pick holes in any one's dress, or to speak of the untrustworthiness of any one, and so forth-all is comprehended in the word Slander.'

نِگہْبانی کے لِیڈے وہاں پیرْتا تھا۔ نظراً سُکِي جوں کُبُوتر پُر پڙي

a villager's son, who was moving ' گُنُوارکا ایک لزُکا جوکھیت کِی about there to watch the field-as soon as his eye fell on the pigeon.'

'Malik Sadik, who is the king of the کا ھی۔ تُمہاری باپ نے اُسکے ساته دوستي پَيدا كِي تِهِي

Jinn-your father had formed a friendship with him.'

كِي ـ جِنْكا جانْناً نُو آموزوں كُو ضرُوري أور مُوجب هوشياري کا تھا۔ وُہ بھی دڑے کی

and certain matters pertaining to the ' اور بعض باتيس غربي أور فارسي Arabic and Persian, the knowing of which was essential, and a means of enlightenment to young scholarsthey also have been introduced.'

305. The Formative plural of nouns denoting periods of time, when used collectively and indefinitely, is used in place of the nominative: e.g. برّسوں گذر گئے 'years passed away.'

11. THE AGENT.

306. When the verb of a sentence is transitive, such that its perfect participle has a passive character, and the tense employed is one which is formed with this participle (the Indefinite Past, the Present Perfect, the Past Perfect, the Past Potential, and one of the forms of the Past Conditional), the structure of the sentence (owing to the nature of the participle) takes a passive form, the near or direct object (the Accusative) is made the subject of the verb, and the agent of the act is put in the Agent case: e.g.

'His Majesty asked after my condition' مہاراج نے میرا حال پُوچہا (lit. 'by the king my condition was asked').

'they gave me good advice' (lit. 'by them to me good advice was given').

'Thad purchased articles of merchandise' نس نے تجارت کی اجناس (lit. 'articles of merchandise had been purchased by me').

307. A sentence as object (or subject) of a verb is treated as a singular masculine noun; hence—

'I had vowed that never again would مُسِ نِے عَہْد کیا تھا کِ پھِر کبیعِي 'I had vowed that never again would 'I breathe the word Travel' (lit. 'that I will never again take the name of Travel, had been vowed by me').

308. But if, for any reason, the object is constructed with ζ , or in other words takes the Dative form, the

concord between it and the verb is broken, and the construction becomes impersonal, the subject, in the form of the pronoun of the third person singular masculine, being implied in the verb: c.g.

'they crushed the snake's head' (lit. 'as to the snake's head, it was crushed by them').

نهم نے اُسّٰکِي درِّخواسّت کو قبُول' I have accepted his petition' (lit. 'as regards his petition, it has been accepted by us').

'God has made men for the purpose of earning (their livelihood),' or lit. 'with reference to men, by God, for the purpose of earning, it has been made,' i.e. the act of creating by God, in reference to men, has been with a view to (their) earning.

- 309. One or two transitive verbs, as بولنا 'to speak,' 'to forget,' the perfect participles of which are regarded as lacking a passive character, are not constructed according to the above rules; as مَين بولا (not)'I spoke.'
- 310. Compound verbs, such as לו (and its contraction ניט) 'to come with, to bring,' לב בוט 'to go away with, to take away,' לא בוט 'to eat up,' etc., the first member of which (as also the whole verb²) is transitive, and the
- 'to these the people of Lakhnau and of Southern India add the verb 'to understand,' 'to think;' whereas Debli authors rarely treat this as a neuter verb. In the Khirad Afroz this verb, as also بوفين, is repeatedly treated as neuter, but socknā, like bhūlnā, is sometimes a transitive and sometimes an intransitive verb. Other verbs, which are added to the above exceptions by some European grammariam—as 'to fear' (to be afraid), القال 'to fail, to fall short' (of), القال 'to be in contact' (with), 'to take' (to)—are essentially intransitive, and hence cannot possibly take the passive construction.
- ² Forbes's rule—which Messrs. Williams and Dowson repeat—is: When the last member of a compound verb is neuter, the whole verb is neuter, and when it is transitive, the whole verb is transitive. This rule, we may observe, is not based on

Rem. In two or more co-ordinate sentences with a common subject, the last of which takes the passive construction with the Agent case, and the other (or others) the active with the Nominative, or vice versal, the Agent or the Nominative (as the case may be) of the last sentence is generally not expressed: e.g.

he mounted the horse and took the 'وُد گهوڙي پرسوار هُوا اَور جنگل road to the jungle.'

road to the jungle.'

a servant seized my hand, and began ايک خادم نے ميرا هاتي. پکڙا

a servant seized my hand, and began ایک محالیم سے میرا هائی پلاڑا to say to me.'

This construction serves to show that (as we have already remarked), according to the conception of those who now speak Urdū, the Agent case is simply a modified form of the Nominative, from which it is distinguished by the sign في , and by its exclusive use with the tenses formed from the perfect participle of transitive verbs. When a Hindūstānī says, for instance, مَنِي كَيْالَّذِي , he means not 'bread was eaten by me,' as the construction implies, but 'I ate bread.'

III. THE GENITIVE.

311. The Genitive of a word denotes that another stands with it in the relation of connection, and is in this

way defined by it. The genitive serves chiefly to show the relation of the substantive so used to some other substantive (or word used substantively), so that both substantives together express one idea; it is however also connected with some adjectives.

- 312. The Genitive in Hindūstānī, it should be borne in mind, is, as regards its origin, an Adjective (§ 43), and therefore, like other Hindī adjectives terminating in \bar{a} , it inflects for gender and number so as to agree with the noun it defines.
- 313. The Genitive may either precede or follow the word by which it is governed (§ 277 et seq.).
- 314. The Genitive after *substantives* is used, generally, to denote dependence of any one substantive upon another: as—

the pretence of friendship.' دوسّتي كا بهانا 'the road of, i.e. to the desert.' صحّرا كِي راد 'a ship of, i.e. laden with men.'

Hence the Genitive depends upon خاطِر, واسطے, etc. signifying for the sake (of), on account (of), and on other postpositions, which are nouns in the Ablative and Locative: as باپ کے لیئے 'for the sake of, or for (my) father,' باپ کے لیئے 'for me,' 'on my account.' (See § 238 et seq.)

Rem. The locative of the Reciprocal Pronoun I as governing noun is frequently omitted: e.g.

a natural antagonism exists between ميري تيرى دُشمنى فاتِي هَي mo and thee.'

'a friendship existed between a tertoise ایک کچہوی اور بچ ہوکے دوستني and a scorpion.'

- so that that same may be a sign 'کِ میري تیري وُهِي پتا هووي between me and thee.'
- 315. Genitive of Relation.—The Genitive is used to denote relationship: موهن کا بيتا Mohan's son,' لڙکوں کا 'the father of the children.'
- 316. Possessive Genitive.—The Genitive denotes a thing possessed by a possessor, and the possessor of a thing possessed: as گير کا مالک 'the owner of a house,' موهن کِي 'Mohan's book.'
- 317. Instead of being joined immediately to the governing substantive, a Possessive Genitive may be connected with it by means of one of the verbs هونا , تها ,خي , etc.: e.g.
- this book is Mohan's.' يهد كِتاب موهن كِي هَي 'mine was a strange predicament at that time.'
- 318. The Genitive of possession in connection with a following verb (هونا , تيا , هونا , etc.) often stands without a governing word: e.g.
 - an ass which had no tail' (lit. 'of which there was no tail').
 - the ass had no heart and ears.' گدھے کے دل اَور کان نہ تھا ' they had no child (their's was no child).'
 - he has received (become possessed of) اُسَكِے سُخْت چوت لگِي هَي a severe injury.'
- the foot-traveller had not gone many ' پیادہ کئی قدم نہ گیا تھا کہ ایک ' steps when a horse kicked him.'
- Rem. In sentences like the first three of the above, it is probable that a postposition, such as ياس or ياس (vulg. يهار), is understood.

But in the last two the native grammarians, and all native scholars, will not allow that any word is understood; but maintain that the construction is that of the Persian, \leq taking the place of the preposition k; e.g. k (for k). This is intelligible if the construction occurs in Urdū alone. But we are not sure that it does not occur in Hindī also; and if this be the case, it would seem more probable that k is here an independent postposition, derived (like k) from the Sanskrit k is here.

319. Subjective Genitive.—The Subjective Genitive indicates the *subject* of the action expressed in the word on which it depends: as

'Mohan's running away.' موهن کا بھاگٹ جانا ' Mohan's running away.' پنڈبادنے جو سِندُبادکی محبّت ' when Hindbād perceived Sindbād's regard (for him).' ' میکیی ' art's producing a resemblance to

320. Objective Genitive.—The Objective Genitive denotes the object of the action, feeling, or notion, expressed in the word on which it depends: as

nature.' تشتّ بَيدا كرنا

'lust of the world.' دُنْیا کی هُوَس 'the thanksgiving of, i.e. to God.' نُدا کا شُکْر 'the fear of God.' نُدا کا خَوف 'the sorrow of others.'

'they have an affection for this thing.' أَنكُو إِسَ بات كي صحبت هي 'they consider the seeing of me unlucky.'

Rem. The Objective Genitive is of common occurrence with the so-called nominal verbs, i.e. when a substantive in the accusative is added to such verbs! , کیا , کنیا , کنیا , کنیا , کنیا , کنیا , کنیا .

e.g. مَسِ جو نَيل کے ماڑنے کِي کوشش کڑتا هُوں 'the effort which I am making to kill the ox;' کہ ایک پتھر کِي اِتنبي تعریف کریں 'that ho should make so much praising of (should praise so much) a stone.'

321. Partitive Genitive.—The Genitive is used with substantives and words used substantively to indicate the whole of which a part is taken: c.g.

the beginning of the story.' آغاز قِتْ کا 'the top of the mountain.' پہاڑ کِي چوٿي 'a piece of diamond.' هيري کا تَكْرَّا 'a half of the field.'

Rem. But if the part taken is a definite weight, measure, or quantity, the noun denoting the whole is put in apposition: as نسى سىر دُوده ه 'three seers of milk;' ايك گركپڙا 'a yard of cloth;' ايك بگرند پاني 'a bīghā of land;' ايك بُونْد پاني 'a drop of water' (cf. Rem. § 301, 1).

322. With the Partitive Genitive also are construed nouns expressing the superlative. The Genitive in this case designates the whole out of which some one or something is brought conspicuously forward as its most prominent part: e.g.

'the best of all the students.' سب طالبعِلُموں کا اچّھا 'the chief seat of the assembly.' کلّقے کِی صدر 'the least of them.' أنّمیں کا چہوتے سے چہوتا 'people of the highest rank.' عِلْم کا اعْلٰی مرّتب کے لوگ 'the highest stage of knowledge.'

Rem. If it is desired to indicate that an object is the greatest or most distinguished of its kind, the substantive is often repeated in the form of the definite genitive plural. This construction occurs chiefly in Persian and Arabic phrases: e.g. خُدائِكُان 'the lord of

lords,' i.e. 'the supreme lord;' امِيرُ ٱلْأُمُوا 'the Amīr of Amīrs, the

- 323. Explicative Genitive.—The Explicative Genitive, or the Genitive of Definition, is closely connected in signification with the Partitive Genitive. It is used to indicate—
- 2) the relation between the material and the form; as سونے a watch of gold ' (a gold watch); کا تب کا صنّدُوق 'a watch of sold ' فولاد کا قَال 'a lock of steel.'

In this case the Genitive has quite the force of an adjective.

3) the relation between the species and the genus, and the definition or explanation of a general or universal by a special or particular: as—

In the three last examples we should rather have expected a substantive in appositior.

324. Genitive of Kind.—The Genitive is also put with words which denote a number, measure, or quantity, to indicate the kind, and the thing measured or counted: as—

'a body of servants.' خانه موں کا ایک گرود 'a ship-load of men.' آدمِیوں کا ایک جہاز 'a space of three days.' تِین دِن کا عرْصه

325. Genitive of Quality.—The Genitive, generally with an adjective (numeral, genitive), is used to indicate a quality of, or to describe, the noun on which it is dependent: as—

نات بات 'a matter of great wonder.' برّی تعجّب کی بات 'a small-headed man.' (عبوت سِر کا آدّمِی 'a small-headed man.' فروت و قد کا آدّمِی 'a man of this form and stature.' (a boy of ten years.' دس برس کا لڑکا 'a field of twenty bīghās.' بیس بیگھے کا کھیت 'a field of twenty bīghās.' خار کوس کا فاصله 'a distance (intervening space) of four kos.' بائے سیر کا وزن 'two seers of, i.e. in weight.'

326. Genitive of Value.—The Genitive is also used (generally with an adjective of quantity) to indicate the value of a thing, and its *price*, if some word signifying price is expressed: e.g.

what may be the value of this بِهِ كِتَّنِي كَا مال هوگا property?'

'he sets a high value on this.' اِسْكِي بَرِّي قَدْر كَرْتَا هَي 'he purchased cloth to the value of 'اُس نے دس رُوپَي كا كَبْرًا خرِيدا ten rupees.'

'what is the price of this box?' إس صنَّدُون كي كيا قبمت هي

Rem. With verbs signifying to buy or sell, the price of a thing is usually expressed by the Dative, or the Locative; as وُد گَهُورًا كِنْنَ كُولِيا 'for how much did (you) buy that horse?' يه كِتَاب كِتَنْ مبن بِرِي 'how much did this book cost?' (cf. §§ 334, and 355, 7.)

327. The Genitive is also used to distinguish a thing to which something belongs as its contents, appurtenance, etc.: e.g.

'a gugglet of (i.e. containing) water.' پاني کي صُراحِي 'water of (i.e. contained in) the river.' فرأيا کا پاني 'provision for three days.'

328. Genitive after Adjectives.—Many adjectives are commonly construed with the genitive. They are chiefly Persian and Arabic active participles, or nouns of agency, and Arabic passive participles, signifying desirous, seeking, coveting, envying, necessitous, beloved, producing, causing, requiring or exacting, following, obeying or subject to, helping, opposing, hindering, fitness, capacity, similitude, guilt, etc. Some Hindī adjectives also, and nearly all Hindī nouns of agency, are used with a genitive: e.g.

نینے اتنائے جنس کِی بہترِی کا دِل 'be desirous from your heart of the well-being of your fellow-creatures.' موزی کا طالب 'a seeker after subsistence.'

those men who are covetous of 'جو آدمی مال کے حارِص هَیں 'those men who are covetous of

thirsting for (eagerly desirous of) أَسْكِ خُون كَا پِياسا his blood.'

'I am not hungering for wealth.' مَين مال كا بَهُوكها نهِين 'they become envious of them.'

'they (stand in) need (of) warning.' وُد عِبْرت کے مُحْتاج هَیں 'in order that you may be beloved of your Lord.'

it becomes the object of men's affection.'

'If desire require (is the demander اگر خواهش کِسي اَیسے فِعْل کِي of) any such action.'

the Holy God also becomes his 'خُداونَّد پاک بھي اُسّکا مددُگار helper.'

they consider knowledge the enemy عِلْم كُو أُسْكَا مُخَالِف جانّت هَيى thereof.'

'anything that is an obstacle to the 'جو آمر أَسْكَ حُصُولِ مَطَلَبَ كا attainment of his object.'

he does not become guilty of con- وُد هَنَاكِ عدالت كَا مُجَرِم نبِيس tempt of court.'

he becomes guilty (commits the 'وْد قَتْل كَا مُرْتَكِب هوتا هَي 'he orime) of murder.'

Rem. A number of adjectives are idiomatically constructed with the inflected genitive (کے). The most common of these are: برابر 'equal,' وریب 'obedient,' 'subject,' قابل 'capable, قریب 'near,' قریب 'fit,' 'worthy,' مُتعلِق 'adhering to,' 'connected with,' مُشابِه 'resembling,' 'conformable,' مُوافِق 'like,' موجب 'rendering necessary,' 'cause,' etc. These adjectives being mostly used as postpositions (§ 240, 3), the same construction has apparently been preserved when they are used as regular adjectives: eg. جب وُد شَهْرِ کے قریب پہانچے وی شابع وی تابع رہے 'when they arrived near the city;' چاهیئے کے عُلے کے تابع رہے 'anger should be under the control (a follower) of Reason; 'ور تین 'anger should be under the control (a follower) of Reason;

ْ and three-fourths (of it) is unfit to be told.'

329. A genitive may be governed by two or more connected nouns, in which case, if these denote living beings, and are of different genders, the genitive is usually put in the masculine plural; but if the nouns denote things or ideas, it generally agrees with the nearest noun: e.g.

ن کُوْ کے ما باپ 'Kallū's mother and father.' ث الله شخّص کے زن و فرّزنّد 'that person's wife and child (or children).'

'his capital and profit.' اصَّل و نفَّع أَسَّكا

the character, custom, and style of ' أس اخبار كبي كَبَغْبَت أور دَسْتُور language, of that newspaper.'

Rem. The masculine is occasionally used: e.g. کر جسکے جاد و حشم کا 'a description of whose pomp and state.' This is especially the case if the nearest noun be one of those the gender of which is not settled: e.g. جان و etc. (see § 28, 8, Rem. e): as نمناری جان و 'your life and property.'

330. If an Urdū genitive is governed by a Persian genitive phrase, one noun of which is masculine and the other feminine, the genitive usually takes the masculine affix: e.g.

'the bettering of his fellow-creatures.' اپنے ابنائے جِنْس کِی بہتری 'from the style of our discourse.' هماري طرز بيان سے 'from the style of thanks for kindly rotice.'

331. A genitive that is governed by a predicative substantive connected with a singular (masculine) subject in

the *plural* form, is invariably put in the plural, whether its governing noun admits of a plural form or not: e.g.

'you are (= thou art) an inhabitant of Dehlī.'

'you are (=thou art) the servant of نُم فَلانِے صاحب کے نَوکر هو such-and-such a gentleman.'

332. If the governing noun denote a person of rank or position who is spoken of, the genitive may be put in the plural as a mark of respect: as جو بادشاه أس مُلك كي تهي 'who was the king of that country' (cf. § 288).

IV. THE DATIVE.

333. The Dative denotes in general that what is asserted by the predicate is done, or holds good for, and in reference to a certain person or thing. This is indicated by the postposition \downarrow , employed in forming the case, and which signifies originally for the sake of, on account of, in reference to: e.g.

the lion used to appear to those ' وُد شبر أَن بيَجاروں كو دِكهائِي ديتا unfortunates.'

anything the hearing whereof would 'جس بات کا سُنَنا سُننے والے کو prove disagreeable to the hearer.'

Rem. In the older literature the place of the Dative postposition is frequently supplied by the postposition تئیں بہ with a genitive: e.g. کَتْتُ 'give (it) to the dog.' But the use of this postposition is now almost exclusively confined to the Reflexive Pronoun; as اَبْنَتُ تَدُّيْنِ تَدُّنِي دُو 'to himself,' etc.

334. As the remote object in reference to which an

action takes place, the Dative has the signification of for, for the sake of, for the purpose of, in return or exchange for, and hence its use with verbs of selling and buying: e.g.

as for us, after weeping and lamenting for your life, we had settled
down, giving you up in despair (lit.
having washed our hands of you).'

'it is sufficient for my whole lifetime.' مسرى تمام غُمْر كو كافي هَي 'the prince came out for a stroll.' شهزاد د سَبر كو نِكْلَهِ 'I am the victim of oppression, I am مُسِ مَظْنُوم هُوں فریاد كو آیا هُوں درسوں فریاد كو آیا هُوں دوسوں فریاد كو

bring water to wash the hands.' هاتب دهونے کو پانبی لاؤ 'give (me) a house near you for me اپنے نزدیک میری اترنے کو مکار.

to put up in' (lit. 'to alight').

ا sold my horse for two hundred 'I sold my horse for two hundred rupces.'

"what will you give this book for?" دید کتاب کتّنہ کو د.گد

Rem. The Dative of motive or purpose (منفعول له the object on account of which anything is done) is generally a verbal noun (e.g. sair, faryād, utarnā, dhonā, in the above examples), and may always be rendered in English by the gerund with to. The force of the same Dative is very commonly expressed by one of the postpositions مردوں کو خدانے کمانے کے عالم وردوں کو خدانے کمانے کے خانے کمانے کے فران کے خدانے کمانے کے فران کے خدانے کمانے کے فران کی فران کے فران

335. The Dative is used after verbs implying motion: as

the merchant went home (to his house).' خواجه گهر کو چلا 'he went to the bazar.'

'(take care) that no annoyance reach the lion.' کِد شیر کو راج نه پهانچے

336. The Dative is used idiomatically with the verb 'to meet, or come in contact with,' to convey the idea of acquiring, finding: as

this boy has got nothing.' إس لڑکے کو کُچھ نہيں مِلا 'the did not find a road or way.'

337. The Dative is used after some adjectives signifying necessary, fit, agreeable, and their opposites, when they are employed as predicative nouns: e.g.

this house is needed by (in requisition for) us.' یه مکان همکو درگار کهي 'I do not approve of this matter,' lit. 'this matter is not agreeable to me.'

338. The phrases چاهیئے, چاهیئے, etc. signifying it is necessary. proper, or right, govern the Dative: e.g.

a man should exert (himself) in doing (a man should exert (himself) in doing good,' lit. 'it is necessary for a man that he.' etc.

it is necessary for him (it behoves 'أَسْكُو لَازِم هَي كَدَ ايكُ كَي بات 'him) that he mention not the words of one person to another.'

339. With the same verbs, and also with the verbs هي and يزا when these imply *intention*, *necessity*, or *constraint*, the Dative is regularly employed before the gerund, the

gerundive, and the perfect participle used as a verbal noun, to denote the subject (cf. §§ 415, 426, and 439): as

we newspaper-writers should consider,' list. 'for us newspaper-writers considering is necessary or right.'

'you should learn manners' تُم کو ادب سِیکھا (=سِیکھنا) چاهِیئے

'we ought now to consider a bit.' اب همکو ذرّد فِکْر کْرْنِي چاهِیڈے 'we ought now to consider a bit.' أيسِي مُغِيد باتيں جلّد كَهْنِي beneficial matters without delay.'

'if we have to make a watch.' اگر همکو گپڙِي بناني هَي 'we have to provide against all our 'we have to provide against all our 'mecessities with this same language.' ضرُورتيس رفّع کرني هَيس 'the government will certainly have (be سرّکار کو اِس ميں ضرُور دسّت constrained) to interfere in this matter.'

340. The Dative of the possessor, with هونا , تبا , خونا to come,' expresses the idea of possession; but the verbs هونا and كآ, with the Dative, more commonly imply entering into and influencing: e.g.

'your Honour has many occupations کُشُور کو شُغّل بہُت سے هَیں (many things to occupy you).'

'the alarm and anxiety which we had (we suffered) at that moment.'

'and if he have not sense and understanding in due degree.'

the king derived some consolation 'بانشاد کو گُچھ تسلِّي هُوئِی (therefrom).'

'jealousy possessed the lion.' شیر کو غیرت آئِی 'I derived assurance (I became certain).' • بخکم یقبس آیا 'pity for their condition possessed the

king.'

341. The Dative is used to express time indefinitely: as

'a band of robbers came at night.' وات كو دَّاكا آيا 'in the morning, when he rose.'

Rem. The Dative postposition is often omitted, but in such cases the noun always takes the inflected form, if it is capable of inflection: e.g.

in the morning, as soon as he rose, he صُبِّحَهُ أَلَّهُ اللَّهِ عَلَى سُوارِ هُوَا mounted (his horse).'

'he has gone home.' وَد گهرگيا هَي 'he has gone to eat his food.

V. THE ACCUSATIVE.

342. The Accusative, in Hindūstānī, occurs only as the objective complement of a transitive verb; as موهي مرهي 'Mohan is reading a book;' كِنَاب پَرْهُمَّا هُي 'Kallū is beating Buddhū.'

Rem. What is predicated of the subject as an action, may be predicated of the object as suffering, so that this takes the place of the subject,

and the same verb is predicated of it in the passive. This, as we have already shown (§ 185, 191, et seq.), is the usual construction in Urdū when the tenses employed are those formed with the past participle of simple transitive verbs (which is by its nature a passive participle), the agent (whether known or not) being generally placed at the head of the sentence in the Agent case: as مُونِّي كَانِّي (by the dog the bread was eaten' (= 'the dog ate the bread'); كَتَا يَعْ رُونِّي كَانِّي 'the bread was eaten by some one.' It is important, however, to bear in mind that at the present day this construction is viewed by those who employ it not as passive, but active, and that when the agent is not known, or it is not desired to mention it, the common passive form (§ 197) is used even in the tenses formed with the passive participle: e.g. كوئي آدوبي صاراكيا هي 'a man has been killed.'

- 343. Whether a verb is transitive depends on its signification, and on the circumstance whether an object is at the same time conceived as immediately acted on.
- 345 Not a few verbs have different significations, so that in one they are transitive and govern the accusative,

while in another they are differently constructed; as أَهُ النِّمَا هَا تَهُ كُمُجُلَّا هَي 'he is scratching his hand;' هَا تَهُ كُمُجُلَّا هَي 'his hand itches;' أَسَ نِهِ مُجِهِتٍ يُكَارا 'he called me;' أَس نِهِ مُجِهِتٍ يُكَارا 'he called out.'

Rem. It is particularly to be observed that intransitive verbs of motion, when compounded with the conjunctive participle of certain transitive verbs, as لينا 'to take,' دين 'to give,' نچيوڙنا 'to leave,' acquire a transitive signification, and are constructed with the Accusative: e.g. مكان پريه 'bring him to me;' سكو مسري پاس لاو 'he left (gave) this book at my house on his way; لَتَّابِ دِي كَبَالِ حِبُورٌ جاوً 'leave the boy behind here.' This is especially the case when the first member of the compound is the conjunctive participle of the verb المينا (cf. § 215 and Rem.).

- 346. The Accusative (منْعُول بِي) has two forms in Urdū; namely, that of the *Nominative*, and that of the *Dative*. Respecting the employment of one or other of these forms the following general rules may be laid down:
- 1) If the verb is one which requires a single object (Accusative) alone, the Accusative generally takes the nominative form, so long as there is no possibility of mistaking the object for the subject: e.g.

'the goat is drinking water.' بگري پانِي پِيتِي هَي 'the goat is drinking water.' سائپ بينگت کهاتا هي 'a snake is devouring a frog.' ميرا ماجرا سُنو

'I entertained the hope of meeting أَمُهَارِي مُلاقات كِي آرَزُو رَكَهُمّا تَهَا نَهُا وَيُو رَكُهُمّا تَهَا يَعَالَى اللَّهُ وَمُعَالِقًا لَهُ اللَّهُ اللّهُ اللَّهُ اللَّاللَّهُ اللَّهُ اللَّلَّ اللَّهُ اللَّالَّالِمُ اللَّهُ اللَّهُ اللَّهُ اللَّهُ ا

the executioners that instant seized 'جلادن نے ووٹیمِس اُسکا ہاتھ۔ پکڑلیا his hand.'

Such is the usual form of the Accusative when the object is inanimate, and the subject either animate or inanimate, and its invariable form when the object is the predicative noun of the verb, as in the so-called Nominal Compounds, e.g. اِصَّتِماد رَكُهُنا 'to form the desire,' اِصَّتِماد رَكُهُنا 'to place confidence.'

2) If, however, the subject and object denote animate things, the object (Λecusative) is generally (in the case of rational beings *invariably*) distinguished by the addition to it of the postposition ε, to obviate the possibility of mistake: as

the wolf quickly tore the sheep to pieces.' بھتریسے نے تُرَت بھبڑ کو پھاڑ ڈالا 'if you can kill the ox in such a way.' اگر تُو اِس طرح بیل کو مارسکے 'Kallū is beating Buddhū.'

conspicuously forward, the Accusative is generally put in the Dative form. This usually takes place when the object has been previously mentioned, and occurs again in connection with a demonstrative pronoun, or other defining word or phrase, or when some particular object is specified, or when two objects are contrasted. But much scope is allowed to individual judgment in this matter: e.g.

'after this the slaves took that dish بیر اُس طبق آور لگن کو غُلام بِآجْرِي and platter near the cage.'

'when you come up to the snake, 'when you come up to the snake, throw down the ornament near it.'

'the fox, having dug a hole, had concealed the mouth thercof.'

'our master will kill the tiger.'

347. Cognate Accusative.—Intransitive as well as transitive verbs may be constructed with an Accusative of a substantive derived from the same root, or from another root of corresponding signification (مَعْوَلُ مُطَلَّلُ the absolute object). This Accusative can never take the Dative form, and it is generally used in connection with an attributive or an adjective of quantity: e.g.

'1 gave (lit. beat) him a good beating.' مَسِى نِے أَسْكُو بَرِّي مار مارِي (lit. beat) him a good beating.' دُومِيوں كي سِي چال چلو (conduct (yourself) after the manner of men' (lit. 'walk a walking like men's').

'we also have fought hundreds of fights.' هم بعبي سَيڭڙوں لڙاياں لڙي 'he prated so much boastful nonsense.'

he sat like a gentleman' (lit. 'he sat the sitting of a gentleman').

348. Double Accusative.—Many verbs (chiefly causatives derived from transitive verbs) take two objective complements in the Accusative, generally either both of the person, or one of the person and the other of the thing. In such cases the personal object more commonly precedes the other, and is defined by the postposition \leq , the second Accusative being put in the Nominative form: e.g.

he was teaching his class Arith' وُه اَيْنِي دفَّعه كو حِساب پڙهاتا تها metic.'

'put this dress on him.' أَسِي بِهِ كَيْرًا بِهُمْناوُ

he would have got my lord (husband) released from prison.'

'in what religion is it permitted to خُداکے بنّدوں کو کُتّے کا جُبوتا کِھلایا make God's servants cat a dog's leavings.'

Rem. The Nom. form of the Accusative may, under certain circumstances, stand first: as وَهُ تَهِيلِي أَسْكُو دِكَهُالْأَبِي 'I showed him that bag' (cf. § 271); and occasionally both Accusatives may be defined by \leq : he gave his أس نے اپنے بہائي کے حِقے کو اُسَّکی بیتی کو دِیا as brother's portion to his (the brother's) daughter; but such examples are of rare occurrence, and must not be taken as a rule: even in this instance it would be perfectly correct to say جَمَّة كَا حِمَّة اللَّهُ اللَّالِي اللَّهُ الللَّهُ اللَّهُ اللَّهُ اللَّهُ اللَّهُ اللَّهُ اللَّهُ اللَّهُ ال examples like the following, which are cited by Forbes's followers to show that both objects may be defined by 3, the case of the second noun is not the Accusative (منعول لـ), but the Dative of purpose (منعول لـ): I despatched the other to ' منبس سے دُوسری کو اُسکے بالنے کو رُخصت کیا they took the prince ' بادشاهزادي كو باغ كي سبر كو لمليَّه 'they took the prince out to stroll in the garden;' and even in such cases the recurrence of is now generally avoided by the use of one of the postpositions كر باغ کی سیرکے etc., with the genitive, in place of the dative: as واست . لمدّے

349. Factilive Accusative.—Verbs signifying to make, appoint, call, name, and the like, and those verbs which signify an act that takes place in the mind (القال المحتلفة على المحتلفة على

though the object (Acc.) with which it is connected be plural; the verb also (if the tense be one composed of the passive participle) being constructed impersonally (see § 338): as

to make an evil the means of good.' کسی بدی کو نیکی کا وسِیله کرّنا 'he has made it such a curiosity.' أسے آیسا خُحْفه بنایا هَی 'I found him very meek.' آسے آس شخص دیکھتا هُوں 'I perceive you (to be) sad.

'it is proper that he call that person the builder of the work.'

'any one whom I heard of (as) a doctor of religion.'

'they deem this practice eleverness.'

'it is proper that he call that person the builder of the work.'

350. But both Accusatives may have the nominative form, in which case, if the second is an adjective or participle that inflects, it agrees in gender and number with the first (the object): ' as

'he made all the carts stationary.'

It is noteworthy that Forbes's remarks on this point, although too briefly put, are perfectly sound; and yet succe ling grammarians, who generally follow his teaching without question, have in this i stance thought proper to depart from it.—"When adjectives ending in ā are separated from their substantives, they not unfrequently become petrified as it were by being drawn towards a verb, and thus forming with it a sort of compound, lose their capability of change," is the teaching of Professor Monier Williams ($Hind\bar{u}st\bar{u}n\bar{\iota}$ Grammar, p. 93).—"Adjectives are often combined with verbs; if the verb is neuter they agree with the nominative: but if active, they remain in the masculine singular," is Mr. Dowson's rule ($Urd\bar{u}$ Grammar, p. 141). Not only are these rules wrong as regards the conception of the adjective spoken of, and its relation to the verb and the object, but they serve clearly to show that both these grammarians have failed to perceive that it is the use of the particle $\frac{1}{2}$ with the object that disturbs the concord between this and the predicative adjective.

'consider his harm your (own) harm.' أَسْكَا نُقْصان الَّيْنَا نُقْصان سُمْجِهِم 'you have made your face black.' ایّنا مُنْه. تُونے کالا کِیا '.stop the cart' گاڙِي کهڙي کر

'he kceps no one's difficulties un- وْه مَّشْكِلَ كَسُوكِي اتَّكِي نهيس ركهَّتا

he satisfies (makes complete) his 'وُد ایّنبی حاجت پُورِي کرتا هی

do not accumulate (lit. make collected, دُسُبا کی چبزس حاجت سے زیادہ or in one place) more than (is) necessary of this world's things.'

having erected (various kinds of small ' شہر کے باہر تنّاؤ أور قنات أور بے and large, poled and pole-less) tents outside the city.' کیڙی کرواک

Rem. a. It will be perceived from the above examples that it is the use of the Dative form of the Accusative that disturbs the concord between the object and the predicative adjective or participle. Similarly the concord between an adjective or participle and its substantive is always broken when the substantive is in the Dative form of the Accusative, but in no other case. Of the pronominal Accusatives, both being originally Dative forms, the second (عبعة, عنا, etc.) would likewise appear to affect the concord similarly to the first (especially if it be the object of a file kalb): e.g. يَرْجُ جِلْ جِلْ 'consider me (the princess) arrived.' But we also find أسے كڙي كرو make it (but the tea) strong, although the correctness of this seems questionable.

Rem. b. Most of the so-called Nominal verbs come under the class noticed above, and hence the Accusative governed by them is commonly put in the Dative form, and the verb in the Past Tenses (if transitive) is constructed impersonally.

351. In the passive of the verbs of the last class the

direct object becomes the subject, the indirect object remaining in the Dative form of the Accusative: e.g.

if the two be compared' (lit. 'if comparison be made in reference to the two').

son be made in reference to the two').

'it is right that he be called the builder of the work' (lit. 'that builder of the work be said in reference to him').

that I be secured from punishment کہ مجیکو تا مُدّتِ اپیل سزا سے 'that I be secured from punishment 'حضوظ رکھا جاوی

VI. THE ABLATIVE.

352. The Ablative postposition designates:

- 1) Departure from a place, or from beside a person; as كَلْكُمْ نِي الْمُعْلَى اللَّهُ عَلَى 'starting from Dehlī;' وَهْلِي سِي حِلْكُرُ لَكُ تَارِ 'the telegraph (electric) wire is working from Calcutta to Peshāwar;' وُد مَسري سَاهُ بِنْتَ سِي كَبا 'he departed from my presence;' آپ همسي أنكي طرف مُلتئِت هُوئي 'your Honour (you) turned from us to them.' Hence it is used:
- a) With verbs (participles, verbal adjectives) that convey the idea of separation, departure, being free, removing, liberating, guarding, concealing, flight, caution, abstinence, avoidance, holding oneself aloof from a person or thing, frightening away, encountering, self-defence, forbidding, hindering, depriving, and the like; and, in general, to express the doing of something towards or in respect to another; as

'he separated (himself) from me.' وُه مُجِهَ سے جُدا هوگیا 'when we came out from the city.' جب هم شهر سے باهِر نِکلے 'he took the cup from my hand.' أُس نے مبرى هاتبہ سے پياله لِيا 'when he finished (ceased from) جب وُه اِس كلام سے فارِغ هوا this discourse.'

'in order that he himself should be clear of fault.'

'be pleased to save me from this punishment.'

it is not right to keep a secret 'دوسّتوں سے بہید چِهپانا دُرُست نہِیں 'it is not right to keep a secret

'nothing remains hidden from him.' أُس سے كوئي بات مخفي نہيں رهّتِي (مُتِي ثرين رهّتِي 'to veil the eyes from (connive at) أُنكِي خطاؤں سے اِظْماض كرّنا their faults.'

'I refrained from evil-speaking.' بُرا کہنے سے اِحْتِراض کِیا 'both of us fled from tuere.'

it is right to abstain from this 'اِس کام سے پڑھیز کڑنا مُناسِب ھي matter.'

it is proper to hold oneself aloof 'أيسے شخص سے دُور رَمْنَا لازِم هَي from such a person.'

to be on one's guard against such ' أيسي چيزوں سے خبردار هونا things.'

'I fought with him well.' مَس أس سے خُوب لرّا 'any one who prevents his desire 'جو کوئي اُسٰکِي خواهِش پُورِي هونے from being fulfilled.'

'he should so deal with them.'

'I will treat you so well (will pursue such a course of conduct towards you).'

what concern have I with share ' *جہے جتے بخری سے کیا کام کی and portion?'

b) with verbs which signify revealing, knowing, informing, asking, and the like; for in these verbs is implied the idea of the removal of a covering, real or figurative: as

'acquaint us also with the circum إس اخوال سے همیں بھي مُطلِع کرو stance.'

'no one was cognizant of this matter.' اِس بات سے کوئی واقِف نہ تھا 'no ne was cognizant of this matter.' نہ اُنکو خُدا پرسّتی سے کُچھ خبر worship of God.'

having become acquainted with إلى باتوں سے آگاد هوكر these matters.'

ن الس نے مُجہ سے کہا 'he said to (or told) me.' اُس نے مُجہ سے کہا 'the king asked the wazīr.' 'I will explain (it) to your honour.' مَيس حُضُور سے بيان كرّونگا 'I have something to say (represent) آب سے کُچہ عرض كرنا هَي to you.'

Rem. The verbs بولنا and بولنا are also connected with the dative, the latter commonly.

c). With verbs signifying, giving up in despair, abandoning, neglecting, denying, the ability to dispense with a thing, disgust, satiety, and other such verbs as imply the notion of turning away: as

'having despaired of life.' زِنْدگِي سے مایُوس هوکر 'having relinquished hope(washed his hands) اَپْنِي جاں سے هاتھ دهوکر of his life.'

'abandon (the idea of shedding) his blood.'

why are you unmindful of the 'زمانے کِي سَخَتِي سے کُیُوں غافِل هو wrong-doing of the world?'

they will refuse to obey (will rebel ' وي إس حُكم سے مُنكِر هو جائينگے against) this decree.'

'I was able to dispense with worldly wealth.'

'being disgusted with it.' اُس سے گھی کھاکر

'are you so soon weary of me 'ایسِی جلّدِی مُجه سے سیر مُوئے 'to be averse to worldly wealth.'

d) With verbs signifying to surpass one: as

'he surpassed all the merchants of that place.'

R. n. But the Locative is sometimes used: e.g. باپ پر بیجی سبّتت 'he even surpassed his father.'

e) With verbs signifying coming in contact, meeting and uniting, or connecting: as

'I tied it to my body.' الپنے بدن سے بائدھ رکھا 'I tied it to my body.' گیوڙا مينے سے بندھا ھُوا تھا 'the horse was tied to a peg.' وُد دماغ سے تعلَّق رکھتے ھَيں 'they are connected with the brain.' پتیر سے تگر کھاکر 'having knocked against (come in contact with) a stone.'

'I came as far as this for the purpose of meeting him.'

'I will see (meet) him to-morrow.' کل اُس سے مُلاقات کرُونگا 'Socrates married a shrew' (lit. 'a 'بُقُراط نے ایک زبان دراز عَورت سے long-tongued woman'). 2) The point of time at which an act or state has commenced: e.g.

'from morn to eve.' صُنّح سے شام تک

from childhood he has had this 'چُهَانُین سِنے أَسْکو بِیہِي شَوق هَي 'same taste.'

'discontinue (it) from this date. أَجَ كِي تَارِيخِ سِن مُوقُوف كرو

Similarly, when an expired portion of time is spoken of, it is used to signify for such-and-such a time: as

'he has been absent for three days.' وُه تَسَى دِنَ سِے غَسِر حِاضَر هَي 'he has been absent for three days.' ایک مُدّت سے مُجّبکو شَوق هَي inclination.'

3) The origin and source of a thing, and the reason why a thing is done: as

he was perplexed by my action' وُه ميرِي حركت سے حَيران هُوا ('his perplexity proceeding from, or being caused by, it').

'he became much ashamed in conse-نادم هُوا بالانت خجِل آور quence of what he sail.'

نَسان کِي زَنْد گِي کھانے پمنے سے هَي 'Man's life lasts through eating and drinking.'

'he is pleased with us.' وُد هم سے خُوش هي

the harm which springs from disorder.'

'hence it is perceived.' یہاں سے معکموم ہوتا کھی

they begin to bear ill-will towards ' أُنْسِي كِين كُرْنِي لَكَّتِي هَيسِ them.'

'having recreated himself with music.' راگت سے محظوظ هوکر

disturbed by the vicissitudes of ' زمانے کے اِنْفِلاب سے گھٹراکر fortune.'

'he is weeping through fear of you.' آپ کے خَوف سے روتا ھَي 'this alone is our real motive in 'اُنکِے جارِی کرنے سے یہی ھمارِی issuing them.'

4) The relation between the act and the *instrument* with which, or the *means* by which, it is performed: as—

'nor would it open with any other key.' کِسي اَور کُانَّجِي سے بیِّي نہ کھُلتا (see with your own eyes.'

that by their means he might make 'کِد اُنکے وسِیلے سے کِشْتُکارِی کے agricultural implements.'

fill the pot with water' (whereas 'پانِي سے بھرو 'fill the pot with water' (whereas عبرو نسی یانی بھرو نسی یانی بھرو water into the pot till it becomes full').

When the noun in the Ablative denotes a *person*, and the verb is *neuter* or *causative*, the instrument passes into the *agent*: as

'I have committed a fault' ('a fault مُجِبُ سِے قُصُور هُوا هَي has proceeded from me').

at night-time I was unable to mako رات کو مُنجبہ سے کُچہ تذّبیر نہ ہو میں any arrangement.'

ا ا مُولوي صاحِب سے اپَّني لڙَکے کو I am having my boy taught Arabic کی اوری ماحِب سے اپّني لڙکے کو by the Maulavī.'

Rem. In Hindī ن in connection with passive verbs also designates the agent of an act; as راون رام سے مارا گیا 'Rāvan was killed by Rām: but this construction is not common in Urdū.

- 5) It is used with verbs signifying to barter or exchange, to indicate that with which exchange is made: as اپنیی 'I exchanged my goods for articles pertaining to that country' (lit. 'with my goods I exchanged articles pertaining to that country').
- 6) The mode or manner of an action: as فرمایت 'be pleased to observe (them) with attention (attentively).'

'he conducts himself with humility.' اِنْکسار سے پبش آتا هي 'it is produced in great abundance.'

7) The quality of a person or thing, in which case it is generally connected with an adjective: as

بدن سے ننگا 'naked of body (naked-bodied).'

with sound legs' ('sound as regards').

sharp (experienced) in business transactions.

Rem. The Locative also may be used to indicate a quality: as جِسْم ' big in body (big-bodied); میں بڙي ' nimble in motion, quick of movement.'

8) The distance from, or proximity to, a person, place, or thing, and priority in point of time, after words denoting distance or priority: as

نیہاں سے بہّت دُور هَي 'it is far from this place.' there was a tiger not far from there.' وهاں سے نزدیک ایک شیر تها 'it is far from (diametrically opposed to) reason.'

'to pass beyond the stage (bounds) اِعْتِدال کے مرتبے سے آگے بڑھ جانا of moderation.'

'before, or previous to, beginning.' شُرُوع کُرنے سے پہنلے or آگے (زمانے) سے پہنلے or آگے

Similarly دروازی سے اندرگیا he went in through the door;' دروازی سے باہر نگلا 'he came out through the door.'

9) The difference between two persons or things that are compared with each other: as

there is a great difference between ' کہنے سے اَور کڑنے سے بٹڑا فرق کھی saying and doing.'

في شي كيا مُشابهت هي 'what resemblance is there between this and that?' ('none whatever; they are quite different.') •

Hence the use of the Ablative in forming comparatives and superlatives.

Rem. The Locative may also be used to express the difference between two persons or things: e.g. هَي هُنِي عَي اور كَرْنَي مِين اور كَرْنَي مِين اللهِ غَرْنَ عَي عَلَى ; and similarly, it may be used to form comparatives and superlatives.

10) The relation which subsists between the *part* and the *whole*, the *species* and the *genus*, the *family* or *race* and a *member* thereof: as

'you are not of our body.' هماري گرود سے تُم نہيں هو 'this person is an Englishman (one of the English people).'

Rem. The compound postposition میں نے is also commonly employed to express the same relation: as خاندان میں سے تبی 'his mother came of the stock of the doctors of the religion of Zoroaster.' Similarly, with the Locative postposition

alone: ایک حکیم لُقّمان کِي اَوّلاد میں (مَوجُود) تھا 'a sage of the family of Lökmān was present.'

11) The definition or explanation of a general or universal by a special or particular: as

'God has given him case in every 'آئکو خُدانے سب طرح کِي فراغت 'Way,'—e.g. wealth, money, etc. نیسے سے پیسے سے 'in respect of what thing do they pride نوکیس چیز سے فخر کرتے هیں زور themselves, — strength, courage, bravery?

Rem. The Locative is often similarly used: e.g. تُم کس چنز میں کم 'in respect of what thing are you wanting—power, money?'

12) Companionship or connection, being equivalent to the postposition سته with a genitive: as

'I ate bread with curry.' روائي سالن سے کھائي مَس نے 'you are come with much baggage.' تم بڑي سامان سے آئے '(that) is connected with (concerns) my destiny.'

Rem. a. نیخه is sometimes used in the sense of پر or بغد as اِس سال as: as اِس سال as بغد from (upon, after) the passing of this year (when this year has passed).'

Rem. b. The Ablative postposition, like that of the Dative, is frequently not expressed, especially in idiomatic phrases: e.g. إس طرح 'in this way,' سب طرح 'in every way,' گير گير 'from house to house,' سب طرح 'from hand to hand,' شاتهوں هاته 'from hand to hand,' هاتهوں هاته دوم with the eyes, nor heard with the ears;' and similarly after many nouns which are used as adverbial postpositions (ef. § 236 et seg.).

353. The postposition is often combined with the Locative postpositions پر,میں, which then have the force of substantives: as

he came out from the inside of the house (he came out of the house).'

'he called out from inside the house.'

النسان كي سب صفات ميں سے 'from the midst of (from among, of) والنسان كي سب صفات ميں سے all human qualities, generosity is the noblest and the best' (cf. § 350, 10, Rem.).

he fell from (fell off) the top of the bouse.'

Similarly باهر سے 'from the outside,' 'from without;' of from the front,' 'from before.'

VII. THE LOCATIVE.

- 354. The Locative postpositions are , and , which denote, as a rule, essentially distinct relations and ideas, and are therefore better noticed separately.
- shows, in general, that one thing is actually in the midst of another, entirely surrounded by it. Hence—
- 1) It indicates rest in a place or during a time, and motion into a place: as إلى سال ميں 'in the house;' أبي سال ميں 'in the same year;' أبد شهر مبل گيا 'he went into the city;' وي 'they (the bees) return to the hive.' This signification is then transferred to the relation subsisting between any two things, the one of which is regarded as the place in which the other is, or happens, or into which it goes or is put: as

'in the season of youth.' جواني کے عالم میں

'in the mean time.' إثنے میں

'in a little while.' تهوڙي دير ميں

'in an easterly direction.'

ْ شَيْرِت مَبْنَ كَيْسِي نَرْمِي هَي ' what gentleness there is in their disposition!'

'he came to (recovered) his senses.'

'mix it in water' (or, according to our idiom, 'with water').

that they will not become polluted ' کِ نجاست وغَیرہ مبی آلُودہ نہ ھوں (by being mixed up) in filth,' etc.

'you lavished treasure in the path of تُو خُداکے رسّتے میں خزانہ لِتّایا (for the sake of) God.'

they become entangled in (fall into) مگارِي وغَيرِه ميں مُنبُتلا هو جاتے deccit,' etc.

(or النے کام میں مشغُول (مضرُوف they are occupied in (discharging) میں their duties.'

ن د اپنے آقا کِي نیکنامِي میں بدِل 'that they labour earnestly in (behalf of) the good repute of their master.'

Rem. It is sometimes idiomatically omitted: وُهُ غُقِيَّهِ هُوا 'he got into (a state of) anger (became angry);' أوه غفس هُوا 'he got into a rage;' إن دِنون 'in that year;' إن دِنون 'in these days.'

2) It is often used in the sense of the synonymous words درسیا and درسیا, signifying among, between, and hence occurs in connection with verbs signifying to unite, reconcile, separate, discriminate, and the like: e.g.

'the princess was not among them.' میلکد أن میں نہ تھی

'dissensions will surely spring up ضرور أن میں جهگُڙي پَيدا هونگ

he made peace between men and ' اُنہوں نے آڈمییوں اَور جِنّوں میں the Jinn.'

discriminate between truth and falsehood.'

what difference is there between أُس ميں أور مُجب ميں كيا فرّق هي him and me?'

3) It indicates the subject or thought of conversation, that in which these move: as

'he writes about (or respecting) وُد اَ اَيْنِ حَالَ مِينَ اِكْبُتَا هَي himself.'

(you) should consult (some one) اِس مُقدَّ ہے میں مشورہ کڑیا about (or in) this case.'

about (or in) this case.' چاحیئے اس میں بہُت سِی فکر کی (I) thought much about this.'

Hence it is used in stating the subject of a book or chapter: as

'On the consultation of (held by) the animals.' کیوانوں کے مشوری میں 'On Morality.'

4) It is used (like the Ablative), in connection with an adjective, to indicate the quality of a person or thing: as

5) It is employed in the *comparison* of an object with several others, governing the thing with which comparison is made: as

he is the biggest of all the bees (is big compared with all the other bees).'

- it is the greatest luminary of all 'سأتوس كواكِب ميں نيّر اعظم هَي the seven planets.'
- 6) It is used absolutely with an adjective or substantive (in the manner of the Ablative Absolute of the Latin), te express a state or circumstance: as

'as if I entered Paradise alive' (lit. گویا جیتے جی بِہِشت میں گیا 'being in a living state').

هوتے and the participle میں and the participle are generally understood.

- 7) It indicates the *price* or *cost* of a thing: as روي پڙي ميں پڙي 'how much did this book cost?' (cf. § 326, 331).
- 8) It is used to define or explain a general or universal by a special or particular: as
- in respect of what are you lacking 'نم کس چِیز میں کم هو زور میں —power or wealth, etc. ?' (ef. 352, 11, and Rem.)
- 9) It denotes the relation subsisting between the part and the whole, the species and the genus, etc.: as
- a sage of the house of Lökman was ایک حکیم تقمان کے خانداں present' (cf. § 349, 10, and Rem.).
- 10) It is commonly used (instead of the Ablative, § 352, e) to indicate that one thing is close by, or in contact with another, and hence it is construed with verbs signifying to adhere, attach or connect: as
- 'the pieces of diamond stuck to the وَشُت مِيں هِيرِي كِي لِّكَّتِي لِكَتُ اللهِ ال
- they will attach the sign of the فِعَلَ مَسِ علامت مُذَكَّر كِي لاحِق masculine to the verb.' کرینگے 'fasten the bucket to the string.'

356. (i,j), over, above, upon, is used—

1) In its original local sense, to denote higher elevation: as

'the bird was sitting on a tree.' چڙيا درخت پر بَبَيْبِي تَغِي 'he was mounted on a horse.' وُد گَهُوڙِي پر سوار تها 'God is in heaven (above).' خُدا آسُمان پر هَي 'I saw a picture on the wall.'

The same sense is further exemplified in:

he was standing by the side of tho 'وُم تالاب کے کِناری پر کہڑا تھا tank' (because a person standing by a tank rises above the level of it).

'I was seated at the door.' مَيِس دَرُوازِي پِر بَيِتْهَا تَهَا 'at (the distance of) a kos or so.' أَكُم حَال پِر غُور كِيا جائيه 'if their condition be reflected on.' اِعْتِدال پِر نظر ركهُنا 'to keep the eye on moderation.'

'he attends to his affairs himself' اَپْنے کارو بار پر خُوں توجُّه کرتا هي 'to stake life upon something (play for life).'

'have pity on our state.' هماري حال پر رحَم كر 'he did not act upon it.'

wonderful and strange events befell مُجه پر عجِیب و غریب حوادث me (passed over me).'

having become acquainted with my 'آپني ناداني پر مُطّلِع هوکر folly.'

'at the appointed time.' وفت مُعَيّن بر

2) To indicate an act or feeling directed against an object, or towards it, with a view to getting possession of it: as

they attacked the enemy (made an attack upon him).'

'the is angry with me.' وُد شَجِه پر غُقَے هَي 'he is angry with me.'

'the cause of displeasure with you.' جَهُ بِرِ خَفْلِي كَا بَاعث

'he urged the horse against him.' أُس پر كَبُورًا دَورًايا

they will desire to lay hands on his ' أُسْكِي كَمَائِي پِر قَابِضِ هُونا چاهمنگے 'carnings.

to be infatuated with this life of a ' اِس چنّد روز کِي زِنِّدگِي پر فریفّته few days.'

'he became enamoured of her.'

3) To indicate a *debt* that is due, and a *duty* that is incumbent *upon* one: as

'l am in debt (a debt is upon me).'

'it is incumbent on them.' أن پر فرض هَي 'it is incumbent on them.' جس چِيزكو خُداني أن پرواجِب them.'

4) To denote the distinction or superiority that one thing enjoys over another: as

'Nature precedes (is above) Art.' طبیعت صناعت پر مُقدّم کھی 'Nature precedes (is above) Art.' اِس دُنْیا کِی زِنْدگِی کو آخِرت پر they prefer the life of this world ترُجِیہ دیتے کیں

5) To indicate the position in which (the ground on which) a person or thing stands in respect of origin, custom, education, business, etc.: e.g.

'men conform to the ways of their آدمِی اپنے پادشاهوں کے طریقے kings.'

'man does not abide by his promise.' إلسان ابِّسے فول قرار پر نہیں ریتا
'government is based (turns) upon
justice.'

every individual thing reverts to هرایک چبزاپئی اضل پرجاتی هی its original.'

when desire exists in (shall conform 'جب خواهش إعّندال كِي حالت ' when desire exists in (shall conform to) a state of moderation.'

6) To denote the cause of or reason for an action: as

on account of (through) that same covetousness (of mine).'

'because of this saying of mine.'

for what offence did you beat these کِس تَنْصَیر پر اِن عریبوں کو مارا
poor creatures?

'she used to be perplexed (to account) وُه میری قَول قرار کے نِباهینے پر for my fulfilling my promise.'

7) To show the *rule* or *standard* according to which something is done: as

'after a proper manner.' مُناسب طَور پر 'according to his wonted custom.' اپنے معمول پر 'according to the rules of philosophy.'

8) It is sometimes used as equivalent to the Persian phrases با رُجُود ,با رضف, = in spite of, notwithstanding: as

'notwithstanding so much wisdom.' آتني دانائي پر 'in spite of this carefulness of his.'

Rem. a. The postposition ساته 'along with' is also employed in this sense, and when so used always precedes the pronoun it governs in the genitive: e.g. سانيه اِسكے كِ وُد آپ جبوتا أور ناتواں هو 'notwithstanding this (fact) that he himself be small and powerless.'

Rem. b. پر, like the postpositions of the other cases, is often idiomatically omitted: e g. أسكي نظر 'at this same time; أسكي نظر 'I have fallen under its (evil) eye (it, the snake, has marked me out for its victim); 'وُه ميري سِر هوني لكا 'he began setting upon me' (lit. 'falling on my head'). In every instance however of a postposition being understood, the noun governed by it (if capable of inflection) takes the inflected form.

Rem. c. تلک من تک ن رب to, up to, as far as, is erroneously included by some grammarians among the postpositions of the Locative. It designates, properly, the limit attained by a thing, or an action, whether that limit be included or not; as پیشاور سے کلکت تک ن (from Peshāwar to Kalkatta (Calcutta); نیشاور سے کلکت تک آنا (to such an extent, to this degree.' If it be desired to indicate that both limits are actually included, the past conjunctive participle ما signifying taking, including, is put after the noun in the Ablative; as تال سے لے بات تک from the branches to the leaves

inclusive.' Tak is sometimes used in the sense of کے لِبئے مام کے دعہ اور زمین وباغ حاصل کڑنے کے لِیئے مُدّتوں لڑی ۔ لوگوں کے حق خصب اُور زمین وباغ حاصل کڑنے کے لِیئے مُدّتوں لڑی ۔ لوگوں کے حق خصب 'and your contending (lit. in that you contended) for long days to acquire lands and gardens, (your) violently usurping the rights of (other) people, (your) forgeries, (your) frauds—all were unto (for) this day.'

VIII. THE VOCATIVE.

357. The Vocative case indicates the object addressed: it therefore stands in no connection with other words in a sentence. Its position is usually at the beginning of the sentence.

Rem. According to the view of native grammarians however, what we call the Vocative is really the indirect object of a suppressed verb: و ي الدوري ا

- 358. The Vocative is often introduced by an interjection: as او الآکے 'O boy!' but if no particular stress is laid on the address, the interjection may be omitted: e.g. عارم 'boy!' عاحبو' gentlemen!' عاحبو' O friends!'
- 359. An adjective (genitive, possessive pronoun) qualifying a noun in the Vocative is also put in the Vocative: as أَى خُداكِ بِنْدِي 'O my darling!' أَى خُداكِ بِنْدِي 'O servant of God!'
- 360. Some nouns occur chiefly in the Vocative case: as النّبي 'brother!' بَيْنيا 'sister!' بَيْنيا 'O mother!' بَيْنيا 'father!' بأبا 'O friend or master!' The last of these occurs in other cases also: e.g. مِيال بِي بِي دُونُون تَبِي دُونُونَ تَبِي دُونُونَ تَبِي دُونُونَ تَبِي دُونُونَ تَبْيَعُونُ مُنْ مُنْ يُعْنِي دُونُونَ تَبِي دُونُونَ تَبْيَعُونُ دُونُونَ تَبِي دُونُونَ تَبِي دُونُونَ تَبْيَعُونُ دُونُ دُ

CHAPTER VIII.

ADJECTIVES.

I. THE ATTRIBUTIVE ADJECTIVE.

- 361. The ordinary rules for the construction of the Adjective have been laid down in the preceding paragraphs (274, 280—282, 291, 292, 294, 349, 350, 359). The following are of a more special character.
- 362. Two adjectives that are attributives to one substantive are commonly connected by asyndeton, after the manner of substantives and verbs: e.g. پہتے پُرانے کپّٰڐِي 'ragged old garments;' چہوتے بڑي لڙکوں سے 'from small (and) big boys.'
- 363. An adjective (generally masculine) may be used without a substantive to denote things or persons: e.g.

'from the good and evil of the time.' زمانے کے بھلے بُري سے 'in the opinion of the wise'

the condition of certain sick persons ' بعض بِيماروں كا يِه حال هوتا هي is such.'

'small and great made rejoicings.' چہوائے بڑوں نے خُوشِیاں کِیں

364. a. The adjective بير 'full,' approximates closely to the character of a postposition. It governs a noun in the Formative, and either precedes or follows it, more commonly the latter: e.g.

to the utmost (full (حتيل آلمَقَدُور or , تا مغَدُور = بهر مقَدُور بهر or) مقَدُور بهر extent) of one's power, as far as possible.'

b. Its signification, when it comes after the substantive, is sometimes that of as fur or much as, or sufficient for (= the Persian), see § 91, 3, Rem.): e.g.

about, or as far as a kos' (whereas 'would always imply 'a full kos').

that there be not as much as a kaurī ' کہ جُبواتِے اُس میں گواڑی بیر نہ ھو (not a particle) of falsehood in it.'

أ وپي بهر كپرًا 'cloth sufficient for a cap.' "

365. a. The adjective $\[\]$ 'like' is placed after nouns (substantives, adjectives, pronouns) to denote similitude, and inflects like the genitive case-sign to agree in gender and number with the object compared: as

'a lion-like man' ('a man bold as a lion').

'a fairy-like girl.' پریِ سِي لڙکي

some black-like (or blackish) object 'خُجَه شَيَّ كاليَّ سي نظر پڙتي هَي is visible.'

Rem. An attributive adjective or a demonstrative pronoun may precede the substantive, the pronoun (see next para.) being put in the Formative: e.g.

'ilike a raging elephant;' مست هاتهي سا 'like that merchant.'

b. When it follows a pronoun, it governs it in the Formative (cf. § 376): e.g.

'a wise man like thee.' تُجه سا آدْمِي عَنْلَمَنْد

that you restored to life a dead ma 'ک منجہ سے مُرْدي کو زِنْدہ کیا like me.'

three darweshes afflicted like thee.

o. The Genitive, inasmuch as it possesses the character of (and is by origin) an Adjective, may also be followed by \sqcup , forming with it a kind of compound adjective: e.g.

a form like a tiger's' ('a tiger-like form').

ناه في رياضت كا سا هي 'its case is similar to that of bodily exercise.'

'feet like goats'.' پاؤں بگریوں کے سے 'feet like goats'.' عنل و تمیز هماري سِي

'alı men are not alike.' سب آدمي ايک سے نہيں هوتے

'you also were lying like a corpse.' تُو بِنِي مُرَّدَهُ سَا يَرًا تَهَا

something like a light (a light-like) دُور سے ایک شُعْله سا نظر آیا appeared at a distance.

'his colour and complexion became 'أسّكا ربك و رَوغن كُچه كا كُچه كا كُچه something quite different, and shed

something quite different, and shed something like the slough of a snake' (lit. 'a snake-slough-like').

Rem. In place of سا, the indeclinable adjective سار occurs occasionally in the older literature: e.g. تِين دَرُويش تُجِه سار دُكِهِي .

We may here point out that instead of بُجِه سار دُكِهِي , the reading of Forbes's Bāy o bahār (cd. 1856, page 68) is عار ركب , which is absolutely meaningless. At page 203 also of the same edition we find ميرا سا دُكِها , which is very extraordinary; for it is evident that the

speaker means to say "afflicted like me," and therefore the reading should be أبحيه سا دُكيا. Some grammarians, strange to say, receive Forbes' version as correct, and translate it "distress like mine." We need hardly point out that نكيا can never mean "distress," and that if the speaker had meant to imply "distress like mine," he would have said معيرا سا دُكيه الله المنافعة.

- 366. The adverbial affix L, which is added to adjectives alone (most commonly to adjectives of quantity), and indicates a great or small degree of a quality, etc., is generally confounded with the adjective of similitude, although the two words are quite distinct both as to origin and signification (§§ 48, 49, and 50, Rem.). As both are similarly constructed, it may sometimes happen that the context alone must be looked to, to determine whether similitude or degree is implied; but this can only occur when the adjective to which له is joined is one of quality: e.g. کالا لما may signify black-like, or blackish, or very black, though the last is the more common signification. When however it is connected with an adjective of quantity, L is almost invariably the adverb of degree : c.g. بہنت سے گبوڙي 'a great نره سِي 'for a trifling fault;' تهوڙي سے فُصُور پر 'for a trifling fault; 'a trivial matter.'
- 367. a. The rules for the formation of comparatives and superlatives, and the various methods of intensifying an adjective, have been laid down in §§ 47 and 48.
- 6. Persian and Arabic comparatives and superlatives are of common occurrence: e.g. باتر مضلحت 'the better (or best) course;' اذني توجّه سے 'with the least attention.' The Arabic superlative, whether constructed with a masculine or feminine noun in Urdū, always takes the masculine form.

II. NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

- 368. The following rules relate to the Cardinal numbers alone; there being nothing special in the construction of the Ordinals beyond what has been already noticed (§ 55 et seq.).
- 369. The cardinal numbers usually precede the noun with which they are connected, and this may be put in the singular or the plural, according to the following rules:
- 1) If the noun denote money, measure or quantity, time, distance, direction, manner, or if it be one which is used as a collective numeral (like the English brace, pair, head, etc.), as جواً 'a pair,' راس 'a rein,' وقال 'a string or file,' it is commonly put in the singular; but the verb forming its predicate is generally plural: e.g.

نیک هزار اشرنی ' one thousand ashrafī (gold-mohurs). ' a bag of four thousand rupees.' پیس گری کی تهیلی ' a piece (of cloth) of twenty yards.' نیس گرکا تهان ' a field of ten bīyhās.' کس بیگھے کا کھیت ' after two or three gharīs.' دو چار گھڙي کے بعد ' in the course of two or three days.' نیس میں نیس میں ' in three weeks.' ' نیس میں میں ' for the space of three months.' نیس میں تک ' from three sides.' نیس طرف سے ' from two directions.' دو جانیب سے ' by two means.'

نیدره سَی زَنْجِیرِ فِیل 'fifteen hundred chain of elephants' (compare the English "fifteen hundred head of cattle").

'nine hundred string (file) of burden-bearing camels.'

'ten rein (i.e. ten) 'Irāk horses.'

Rem. The plural also is occasionally used when the noun denotes money: as چالیس اشرفیاں 'forty ashrafīs;' and in this case, when the noun is put in the singular, the verb also is sometimes singular, the verb also is sometimes singular, 'there were (lit. was) two hundred and fifty ashrafī.'

2) In all other cases the plural is more commonly employed, though the noun may be put in the singular: the predicate however is usually put in the plural: as

نا الکنه گهوڙي ميں دو چيز کميں 'a lakh of horses.' 'there are two things (lit. thing) in man.' 'with one hundred and one men.' 'with one hundred and one men.' 'two or three (a few) words.' 'four or five trays.' 'guest of four things.' 'quest of four things.' 'he wrote two lines.' 'two drops of tears fell.' 'there are thirty-nine bullets.'

370. The higher cardinal numbers, when used as collective substantives, are put in the Formative plural, and the noun denoting the things thus vaguely enumerated

follows in the plural or the singular, according to the preceding rules: e.g.

سَيكُرُوں لرّاياں 'hundreds of fights' (properly, 'fights in hundreds').

'thousands of elephants.' هزارون هاتهي

curiosities (to the value) of lakhs of rupees.'

'lakhs (of men) will die in con- لاکھوں (آدمیے) اُسکے ظُلُم سے مرینگے sequence of his tyranny.'

371. Similarly when the cardinal numbers (generally) are connected with some definite or specific object, they are used as collective substantives, and put in the Formative plural, to indicate that all or the whole of the objects enumerated are included; while the noun denoting these objects may be put in the singular (cf. § 369, 2): e.g.

the whole of the forty monkeys' چالبسوں بندر (before mentioned).

'by all of the four mendicants.' چاروں فتیروں (or فقیر) نے

'between both of the two kings.' دونوں بادشاهوں (or بادّشاه) میں

'into both my (two) eyes.' مبری دونوں آنگھوں میں

both of the two states are (states) دونوں حالتیں خرابي کِي هَيں of evil.'

'of all the seven planets.' ساتوں کواکِب میں

י the whole of the eight watches' (into which a day of twenty-four hours is divided, and hence) ' the whole twenty-four hours.'

from all the four quarters' (the cardinal points), from all sides.'

cardinal points), from all sides.

the prayers of all the five (appointed) times.

Rem. These numeral forms appear to perplex the grammarians in no Thus we are told by one of our most recent instructors small degree. that "in the oblique cases plural, when the numerals are specific, the numeral or the noun, or both the numeral and the noun, are put in حالِیس دروازوں سے (or) حالیسوں دروازی سے (c.g.) the oblique form: = 'through the forty doors.' But when the sense is not specific, the noun is put in the nominative plural: (e.g.) تِیں دِن کے عرصے مبس means 'for the space of three days;' but تِبنوں دِن کے عرّصے میں or تیں دِنوں کے عرصے میں means 'for the space of the three days.'" These rules, we may observe, are essentially wrong, and betray a total misconception of the nature of the numeral in the cases compared. In the expressions سے عرصے and چالیس دروازوں سے (the signification of which differs in no respect from that of چالیس دروازی and بنوں کے عرصے and سے), the numeral is used as an adjective; whereas in the expressions سے or) دروازی or) جالیسوں دروازی or) the numeral is used as a collective substantive, signifying 'including the whole total of forty,' or 'in their whole total of forty,' etc.: thus means 'through forty,' or 'the forty حالمس دروازوں (or دروازی) سے چالیسوں دروازی (or دروازوں) سے doors,' according to the context; but signifies 'through the doors in their whole total of forty,' or 'through all the forty doors.'

CHAPTER IX.

PRONOUNS.

I. THE PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

372. The personal pronouns are not usually expressed when they are the subjects of *personal* verbs, and are even often understood in other instances. But they must be expressed where perspicuity, contrast, or emphasis is required. They generally precede the verb; but they sometimes follow (commonly in the Imperative), especially in poetry: *e.g.*

'how shall I leave it and go?' أسے چھوڙكر كيُوٽكر جاؤں 'should I do (it)?'

'I used to call to mind the saying of the wise.' دانِشَمنَّدُوں کا قَول یاد کرّتا
'rare fools are they.'

373. Two or more pronouns forming the subjects of one predicate are arranged in the order of the persons (§ 290). The same order is commonly (though not invariably) observed when the pronouns are in an inflected case: e.g.

that that same may be a sign کے میری تیری وُهِي پتا هووي between me and thee.'

the causing (of people) to laugh at ' ميرِي تُمهارِي هنّساؤِي سُساؤِي me and you.'

374. The Genitives of the pronouns are properly possessive adjectives in the Nominative (§ 154), and are inflected accordingly. They are however frequently used as objective genitives: as

'in quest of you.' تُمهارِي تلاش ميں 'in quest of him or it.' أَسْكِي تلاش ميں

they consider the sight of me unlucky.'

he groped with his hands to eateh 'مماري پكرنے كو هاتھ چلائے 'for the catching of) us.'

375. a. The place of the Accusative of the personal pronouns (including the Demonstrative, when it is used for the pronoun of the *third* person) is supplied by the Dative, either of the two forms of which may be used as a Dative or an Accusative; but the form which takes the postposition \leq is that more commonly used for the Accusative: e.g.

'our master Sindbad has called thee.' حماري آقا سِنَدْبادن تَ تُجهَكُو بُلايا هَي 'she moved the cloth from (her) face کَبُرًا مُنَهُ سِے سُرِکاکر مُجهَکو دیکها and looked at me.'

'he went there with you' ('brought you there').

they ate them up. أَنْكُو كَهَا كُلِّي

this fakir became paralyzed on فتبير أَسْكو ديكيّْكر سُن مُوَّا, seeing her.'

'having recognized thee.' تُجهے پہنچائکر

'in order that they might see me.'

'deeming me dead.' مُجه مُوا هُوا جانكر

'how shall I leave it and go?' (lit. 'go, having left it').

'on the instant of seeing them.' أنهيس ديكيَّت هِي

b. If the Dative and the Accusative of a pronoun occur in the same sentence, the Accusative takes the postposition ξ , and the Dative the second form: as

c. Similarly the second form of the Dative is used for the Dative or Accusative of the pronoun if, in the same sentence, the direct or indirect object of the verb is a noun constructed with $\leq c.g.$

376: a. When a personal pronoun in any case except the Nominative and Vocative is connected with an attributive adjective, it precedes the same in the Formative, and the case-sign is added to the adjective: e.g.

'the true story of ruined me.' مُجِهِ خانه خراب کِي حقِيقت 'to lowly me.' مُجِنِ عاجِز کو

b. Excepting the Agent case and the Genitive, as well as the Nominative, the same construction obtains when the emphatic particle عبي (plural هبي or منا) is added to the pronouns, that of the third person included: e.g.

But مَيں نے هِي یہ. کام نہبں کِیا I alone did not do this.'

'my course is the correct one.' میرا هِي طرِیقہ ٿِمِک هَي

'this property is yours.'

c. The Adjective of Similitude له (as has been shown in § 365) always follows the personal pronouns, and governs them in the Formative. It rarely occurs however in connection with the pronoun of the third person. In the pronominal adjectives أيساً, أيساً, the pronoun is demonstrative, not personal, the signification being not like him, or it, but like this, or that, such (cf. § 156 and Rem.).

d. The postposition پاس, which governs both the Formative and the Genitive of substantives (§ 239), may likewise govern the Formative or the Genitive of pronouns: "g. أس پاس 'near me,' أس پاس 'near him.' In both cases however the Genitive is the more common construction.

Rem. The plural pronoun is often used for the singular porsons of rank or position when addressing inferiors; and the plural is commonly employed in place of the singular i. These forms being thus used in the singular, their place as plurals is often supplied by the expressions عم لوك 'we people,' 'we;' 'you people,' 'you.' The use of 'thou,' though common among the vulgar, is restricted by the educated to the purpose of indicating contempt, affection (chiefly in addressing children, or old and trusty servants), or reverence (whence its employment in addresses to the Deity). The educated, when conversing with equals, generally use the singular pronouns with equals, generally use the singular pronouns of in the two persons are intimate friends. The respectful forms for the third person singular in any of the inflected cases except the Agent, are it is a singular in the case of

the Agent the form is أنهوں نے كہا (e.g. أنهوں نے كہا) 'he said'), and not أنهوں نے كہا, this being now the ordinary form of the singular Agent (ef. §§ 140, 141).

II. THE DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

- 377. The Demonstrative pronouns are local adjectives; but, by omitting the object defined, they may be used as nouns: as يبه سُنكر 'what are these?' يبه سُنكر 'hearing this.'
- 378. There is no personal pronoun of the third person in Hindūstānī: its place is generally supplied by the remote demonstrative if that, he, she, it. But if it be desired to distinguish between a near and a remote object, the pronoun if this is used to indicate the nearer object. When the demonstratives are used as personal pronouns, the case-signs are added immediately to them; but when they are employed adjectively, defining a noun in an inflected case, they are put in the Formative, but the postposition of the case is added to the substantive (cf. § 141): e.g.

'what does this man say?'

'that person was seated near me.'

'that person was seated near me.'

'refrain from this business.'

'near that cave.'

'he will see me.'

'there is no believing him (this man near).'

'bring him to me.'

Rom. a. The forms بيم and s are both singular and plural in Urdū (§ 141, Rom. c.): e.g. بيم they say.'1

Rem. b. The rules laid down in §§ 373-376, apply also to the pronoun of the third person.

379. The Demonstrative y, this same, this very' (=y, the emphatic particle y, or, in the plural, y, refers emphatically to an object close at hand, or just spoken of, or about to be mentioned; (x,y) that same, that very,' to a more remote, or a previously mentioned object: e.g.

this same is written in our destiny 'this same is written in our destiny 'that we shall break (gather) sticks every day.'

in this same (afore-mentioned) اِسِي طرح اشْرفياں کے لالیم سے manner, through greed of ashrafis.

every year in these same days.' هرسال اِنجِس دِنوں مبس ' every year in these same days.' وُهِي عَورت كَهْنِي لَكِي began to say.'

the servants of the same (aforementioned) gentleman.'

along with all these same (aforementioned) merchants.'

'this' or 'these;' de 'that' or 'those.' The use of these forms in the plural is termed "ungrammatical" by a recent writer on Urdū grammar. The same thoughtless remark was made some years ago in one of the notes to an English translation of a well-known Urdū work, and happening to fall under the eye of a native scholar in India, called forth the following: "We shall ere long, I suppose, have English gentlemen coming out to India to teach us how to speak and write our own tongue correctly and idiomatically." It may perhaps induce these gentlemen to change their opinion on this subject if they learn that the original plural form of also was (as it is now in Marathī and Sindhī), and that this ultimately gave place to 4, eq. in Urdū, is giving place to 4.

380. a. In the Accusative, the Demonstratives, when used as adjectives or substantives defining a thing, may take the Nominative forms (2), (3), if there be no stress laid on them, or the object defined by them has not been previously mentioned; but these forms can never occur when the Demonstratives are used as personal pronouns: e.g.

' where shall I take this bundle?' یبه گذیئری کهاں پہانچاؤں ' where shall I take this bundle?' وُد مال کبنی دِن کیاوُنگا on that money?' بید سُنگر ' having heard this.'

having heard this.' یہ سٹکر 'having heard this.'
'i will give that (not it) to thee.'

b. But if the Demonstratives refer to an animate object, or to a thing which it is desired to bring conspicuously forward (cf. $\S 346$, 2, 3), they take the inflected form ($\S 378$), and the postposition Σ is added to the noun defined by them: e.g.

' why are you beating this boy?' اِس اَرَّکے کو کیُوں مارّتے ہو ' take this dog away.' اِس کُنّے کو لے جاؤ ' I tore that book.'

c. The use of one or other of the two forms of the Dative-Accusative (viz. أَسْكُو or أَسْكُو or أَسْكُو or أَسْكُو of the personal pronouns has been explained in § 375.

Rem. If the Demonstrative defines a noun followed by the adjective of similitude له , it takes the inflected form (§ 365): as أس سَودا كر سا ألله that merchant.'

381. The Demonstratives are occasionally used in the sense of the pronominal adjectives رَيسا ,اَيسا ,derived from them. In such cases an explanatory or descriptive

sentence introduced by the explicatory particle ζ 'that,' generally follows: as

such was the state of brilliance that روشنے کا ببہ عالم تھا کِ شب قدر نہ تھی در اللہ Might of Power had (would have had) no power (consideration) there.'

III. THE RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

382. There are in Urdū two sorts of relative sentences; namely 1) such as are introduced by the Relative pronoun who, which, what,' etc.; and 2) such as are annexed to an immediately preceding definite or indefinite noun without the aid of a Relative pronoun. A sentence of the former kind is called خملة موشول a conjunctive sentence; of the latter kind خملة وتنب من descriptive or qualificative sentence (see § 276, Rem.).

1) THE CONJUNCTIVE SENTENCE.

- is used both substantively and adjectively: it may moreover be definite or indefinite; as for the who came, or 'whoever came.'
- 384. a. When the Relative is used as an indefinite substantive, its clause is generally followed by one introduced by the correlative or determinative pronoun $_{\omega}$ or $_{\omega}$ (more commonly the latter, which is often more emphatic than $_{\omega}$), which takes up the Relative, the two pronouns agreeing in gender and number, but each standing in the case

determined by its relation to its own clause. The correlative however is often omitted: e.g.

happen what may' (lit. 'whatever' جو هو سو هو shall happen, that (or it) shall happen.'

do that wherein your pleasure 'do whateveryouplease').

those who were smart and active 'جوچُست و چالات تھے وُہ جنّدی quickly jumped into the boats and went on board (the ship).'

whoever came went away laden (evith treasure).'

Rem. Compare with the Urdū so or و , the Sanskrit यद् yad— तद tad, and the Latin qui—is, or idem.

- b. The Relative (and, as the case may be, the correlative) may be repeated for the sake of emphasis (تاكيد, see Rem. § 276): e.g.
- whatever articles I considered neفائددمنّد سمّجهِيں خريدِيں
 cessary and advantageous (those)
 I purchased.'
- c. The indefinite pronouns جو کُجه 'whoever,' are also constructed like the Relative; and the place of the following determinative pronoun may be supplied by one of the pronominal adjectives وَيسا , اَيسا . e.g.

to whomsoever (fod has given a 'جس کِسِي کو الله نے بہّت سِي 'great many good things, it behoves مَن اُسْكُو لائِفُ him to render thanks.'

whatever they suck from the petals ' اَنَ بِهُولُوں کِي پِتَمُوں سے جو کُچِهِ of those flowers is reproduced in the form of a viscous and sweet substance (called honey).'

whatever (all that) he had described ' جو کُجِنہ اُسّکا فائدد ببان کیا تھا as its beneficial effects, exactly such I found (it to be)'

385. But if the relative clause is used adjectively (as the dw) to describe or define a preceding substantive, the construction is similar to that of English: the Relative agrees with its antecedent in gender, number, and person, the concord in gender (since the pronoun has no distinct forms for mase, and fem.) being indicated by the predicate of the relative clause. The case of the Relative is determined by its relation to its own clause: e.g.

'a sage, who was skilled in decipher ایک حکمہ حو یُرانے خط کے پڑھنے 'ing old characters (or writings).'

this is an outrage for which no یہ ایک اندھبرھی جسکا کیے۔

punishment is inflicted.'

this mansion is Sindbad's, who پہدولت خانہ سنڈباد کا کھی جِسْنے has made the voyage of all the seas in the world.'

there is (they have) a king among أنميس أيك پادشاد هوتا هَي جِسْكو them, whom they call Ya'sūb.

386. a. The antecedent, especially if it be an indefinite substantive, is often attracted (in the same case as the Relative adjective) into the relative clause, and the construction is then the same as that explained in § 384: e.g.

(the king who (= whatever king) جو ياڈشاد أن بر عمل نہ كرى أسكيم سلطنت هميشه ستزلزل

none of the people present could' جو لوگ حاضر تھے اُں میں سے كوئي أس خطكو نه پڙهه سڭتا تها 'I embarked in a good ship along 'جن تاجروں کی دِیانت اُور امانت یر اِعْتِماد تھا آئکے ساتھ ایک ا۔تینے جہاز پر سوار ہوا

'no benefit—naught but harm (lit. no گیا کھی اُس سے بجُز ض کے آور گجنے فائدہ حاصل نہ ہوگا

'listen to no complaint against the 'جس نَوكر كو مُقرّب بنائِيت أُسْكِي نسبت شکایت نه سنیے

when (lit. at which time) it be- جس وقُت معَّلُوم هو كِ فُلال شخص چُغُل خور هَى أُسِي وَقَّت أُسْكِي دفعیے کی تذبیر کر*ی*

to remove him (from his place).'

does not act upon them, his dominion will ever remain in a tottering condition.'

read that character.'

with some (those) merchants in whose honesty and integrity I had confidence.'

benefit save harm) will be received from the person in whose bosom rancour has established itself.'

servant whom you make a favourite (or confident).

comes known (to the king) that such and such a person is a talebearer, let him immediately (lit. at that very time) take steps

b. If the Relative be connected with a substantive denoting place, direction, etc., one of the corresponding pronominal adverbs (§ 224) will take the place of the determinative pronoun: as

he went in the same direction from ' جِس طرَّف سے آیا اُدھر ھِی کو چلا which he came.'

'a water-pot filled with gold mohurs جس درخت کے نِیچے تُوکیڙا هَي is buried here under the tree فهوا گنا جا آفتا به اشرفیوں سے بہرا فهوا گنا و میں where you are standing.'

387. If emphasis is laid on the Demonstrative clause, it generally precedes the Relative: as

and then he kills the bee that brings ' يجرأس مكّبي كو مار دّالتا جو بدبو ' the offensive smell with it.'

نیکری مبن وُهِی لوگ زنّدگی 'those people alone pass their lives 'munconcern who are foolish and thoughtless.'

and I explained in their presence ' أوروْد تَدْببرجس سِے مَس يہاں تک the expedient by (me as of) which آپُنچا اُلکے سامنینے بیان کِیا I got there (lit. here).'

388. a. The Relative may be used both as subject and object in one and the same sentence, which then becomes doubly correlative. This construction is always employed in such sentences as in English contain both an indefinite Relative and an indefinite Pronoun. For

example, "whatever came into the mind of any one," would in Urdū be expressed thus: "whatsoever came into the mind of whomsoever." In such cases the Correlative pronouns are, one or both, frequently omitted in Urdū: e.g.

whatsoever fell into any one's ld whomsoever's hands, he carried of

'whatsoever form He considered بحسکے واسطے جو صُورت مناسِب for any one soever. He best wed بنا اللہ مناسِب تیا 'whatsoever was proper for any one soever has been bestowed.'

b. A pronominal adverb derived from the Relative pronoun may even take the place of one of the Relatives: cg.

and whatsoever they find any اور جہاں سے جو کُچنہ پاتے هُس ليے 'and whatsoever they find any where they bring thence' (lit. 'and whencesoever whatsoever they find they bring').

'as any one does so will he receive.' حو جَيسا كريمًا وَيسا پاويمًا

Rem. a. This construction, it may be observed, is derived from the Sanskrit: e.g. yad rochate yasmai, 'whatsoever is pleasing to whomsoever,' or 'whatever pleases any one;' and, as might be expected, it is found in the Persian also: e.g. ببرک هرچ سزاوار بُود بخشدند 'whatsoever was suitable to any one has been bestowed.'

The Relative is never employed in connection with the Indefinite pronouns, except to form the compound indefinite pronouns جو کوئي (Formative جسکي), and جو کُچه If in the first of the above examples we were to substitute کسي کے for کسي جو برجسکے would no longer be a Relative pronoun, but a conjunction, and the meaning of

the sentence would be "if it fell into the hands of any one, etc." The Relative pronoun however partakes considerably of the character of the Indefinite pronoun, and frequently implies a condition also, thus taking the signification of the conjunction and "if;" as رجس صُورت ميں أُود لوگت خائِن هُوئي - اَور بادشاه كو اُنك ناد جان سے جائينگ 'if in any case (الله in the case in which) they turned traitors, and the king had confidence in their statements, then many innocent people would (lit. will) lose their lives.'

389. The relative adjectives and adverbs also are used correlatively, in the manner of the relative pronoun: ϵg .

'as he (or I) did, so he (or I) received.'

ر الله 'where the rose (is) the عبان خار the thorn'

ر السائے لوغانے 'take as much as is necessary (as you want).'

'while there is life there is hope.' جب تلک سائس تب تلک آس

2) THE QUALIFICATIVE SENTENCE.

annexed to an immediately preceding definite or indefinite noun which it qualifies or describes. It is always introduced by the particle ξ 'that,' which is simply an explicatory particle (called كاف بيانية the kāf of the descriptive sentence, when preceded by a substantive, and كاف بيانية, the kāf of the conjunctive clause, when it is preceded by a relative pronoun), and hence may also stand before a sentence beginning with the relative pronoun when such sentence

is descriptive of that which precedes it. The qualificative clause following \mathcal{L} contains a pronoun (either expressed or understood, or implied in the verb) which refers to the qualified noun, and connects it with the qualificative clause. This pronoun (the case of which is altogether independent of that of the antecedent) supplies the syntactical place of our relative pronoun. The particle \mathcal{L} it should be observed is sometimes omitted and not generally translated: c.g.

the wazīr, who (lit. he) was a wise وزير كِد (وُد .se.) مرَدِ دانا تها man.'

'and a great many men., who (ld.) أَسْكِي and a great many men. who (ld.) يُشت پر تہے داوی (se. وی) اُسْكِي

to the end that I might meet with کہ کِسی آیسے شخص سے مُلاقات some such person with whom (lit.

that with him) I might return to my native land.

(ایک دُوکان هَي (اکدره) ایک دُوکان هَي (اکدره) ایک دُوکان هَي (اکدره) (ایک دُوکان هَي (اکدره) الله های (ایدره) (ایدره

'that slave who had been fostered.' وُد خُلام کِه جِس نِه پرُورِش پائِی تغِی 'that slave who had been fostered.' اِتَّنَا مَال کِه جِسْکا حِساب نہِس no calculation.'

Rem. The construction with 5 is borrowed from the Persian, and the explanation here given of its use is taken from the Kawā'idĕ Urdū Part IV. Ki is neither itself a relative pronoun, nor does it "at the beginning of a sentence with a personal pronoun coming in sub-

sequently represent the Relative;" but it is in all cases a simple particle heading a descriptive or defining clause, which clause, as we have observed above, contains a pronoun that supplies the syntactical place of our relative pronoun. We subjoin the analysis of a sentence by a native grammarian in corroboration of this view. وَ كِتَابِ كِ هَمِي , "the analysis is this—عَمْ, ismë ishāra; بررتجي هَي , mushārun ilaih; ishāra aur mushārun ilaih milkar mauṣūf hūʾā; كِهَ, kāf bayān kū; , بررتجي هُي , jārr, aur yēh donon milkar mutaʿallik hūʾe feʾl, yaʿne بي , jiskā fāʾil ṣamīr hai jo phirtī hai كِتَابِ لَهُ لِهُ اللهُ عَلَى اللهُ اللهُ

IV. THE INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

" who are you? ' تُم كون هو ' who are you? ' ثم كون هو ' who said such a thing? ' نسبی بات كېي ' who said such a thing? ' نسبی بات كېي هيں ' what merchant's packages are those? ' what is your name? ' كيا كہتا هي ' what does he say?' كيا كہتا هي ' what fault have I committed?' نُجج سے كيا قَصُور هُوا

392. The pronouns may be repeated for emphasis (تاكيك, see § 276, Rem.), with a distributive force, or to imply a great number or variety: e.g.

in what various ways?' کس کِدم طرح 'in what various ways?' تُجه مبس بہّت عَیب هُس کیس دیں۔ 'تجه مبس بہّت عَیب هُس کیس دیا۔ 'cular ones shall I enumerate?'

'what several works did they all do?'

393. When the question refers to one of two or more, the particle الربي is generally added to the interrogative: as

in which particular book?' (out of two or more).

394. The Interrogative like the Relative (§ 388), may be used as both subject and object in the same sentence: e.g.

ا دیکٹوں گوں کس مرتبے میں کی 'let me see in what rank each of you stands' (lit. 'who stands in what rank ?')

is used only with the signification of why? as کاھے کو اُنکے پاس جانے so near them?' But at the present period the phrase کس واسطے or لیئے or کس واسطے 'for what purpose?' 'why?' is more common: e.g. کس لِبئے بَیتہے ھو 'why are you sitting here?' تم سب اِس ویرانے میں کیُوں آئے ھو 'why have you all come to this desolate place?'

or to imply the answer 'no,' 'none whatever:' as

what shall I do with Paradise (what is Paradise to me) without thee, darling?

(*what shame is there in eating کیاہے میں شرّم کیا تھی 'there is no shame,' etc.)

Rem. a. Compare also the use of المحاري in the following: آدم كبا ديو a man! nay, he was a demon' (or 'he was no man, he was a demon'; مماري اخلاقي مساحتوں پر عسر كا تو كما ذكر كمى خُود هماري هم وطن كريے ماري اخلاقي مساحتوں پر عسر كا تو كما ذكر كمى خود هماري هم وطن أو ماري الماري أو الماري أو الماري أو الماري الماري أو الما

Rem. b. The interrogative adverbs کبای 'when?' کبای 'where?' etc., are also often used to imply the answer 'no,' 'never:' e.g. کب کوست کی شامی طبیعت اهل دَولت کی 'when does a noble-minded man flatter the rich?' i.e. 'a noble-minded man never flatters,' etc.

- 2) Indignation, or rebuke; as

 'what are you doing?' ('don't do that!')
- 3) Surprise or wonder: as

 (what a very good man he is!'
- b. It may also be used like the English 'how' to denote extent or degree, etc.: as
 - 'how inc or excellent!' کیا خُوب

'if one forces its way into his clothes اگر کوئی اُسکے کپّڑوں مبس گُهس کر and bites him, how restless he فوتا هي becomes.

397. کیا like the English what—what, and whether—or, are used correlatively to connect sentences: e.g.

what night and what day?' or 'whether in the night or in the day.'

"whether in joy or sorrow?' كيا خُوشي أوركيا تشّويش مس

398. The Interrogatives are used in *indirect* as well as direct questions: in such cases the interrogative clause generally stands as *object* to a preceding negative verb, or an interrogative sentence that is equivalent to a negative: e.g.

يا جائبوں کہ وُد کوں (شنخص sc.) what know sc. (شنخص sc.) هي (what person) he is ?'

he did not know who lived (lit. lives) in that house, and whose أَسْكُو مَعْلُوم نَهُ تَهَا كِهِ أُس مَكَانَ مَبِي اللهِ اللهِ اللهِ اللهُ الله

Rem. a. In such sentences the verb of the governing clause must always be either directly or indirectly negative, otherwise the interrogative cannot be employed; a sentence like هُمُين جَانتا هُون كَ وُد كُون هي is unidiomatic and wrong. It betrays a misconception of Urdū idiom to say of sentences like those given above that "the Interrogative is used instead of the Relative."

Rem. b. The interrogative particles آیا 'is it?' 'whether?' and کُونگر 'how?' are also used in interrogative sentences, the latter commonly:

e.g. کی یا مفّعُول کِی بیان کُرْتا کھی یا مفّعُول کِی 'does this indicate the state of the agent or of the object?' تُم یہاں کیونکر آئے 'how did you come here?'

V. THE INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

some, any, a, a certain, etc., and خون some, a few, a little, etc., when used substantively, apply, the former to living beings, the latter to things only; but as adjectives either may be connected with any noun, whether this denote a person or a thing. The pronoun خوني to a great extent supplies the place of the English indefinite article: it is declined in the singular only, and is not commonly connected with a plural noun (see Rem. below), never perhaps with a plural of persons:

if a confidential servant commit 'اگرکوٹی مُقرّب خِمانت کری یا اَور treachery or be guilty of any other offence.'

when a bee of another hive wishes ' جب کوئي مکتبي دُوسَّري چهقے to come.'

in a certain region of Hindustan ' هنڈوسنان کے کِسِی خِطّے میں ایک there was a king.'

'bring some water.' کُچه پاني الوَّ

'I have some doubt respecting this.' مُجهٰكُو اِسْ مَسِى كُچِنِهِ شَكْ هَي

A recent writer on Urdū grammar terms the use of huchh with a plural noun "uncommon" and "inelegant." We can confidently affirm that it is commonly so used by the best native writers, and they are certainly the best judges of the "elegance" of the construction. The same writer doubts the use of huchh in application to persons, that it is so used will be seen from the seventh and eleventh of the above examples.

this is somewhat better than that. بہتر ھی

he (this man) too is something of a بہہ بیبِي گُچپہ آڈویي هَي

perhaps some improper شاید کچید نامُناسِب باتیں میري escaped my lips (lit. tongue).'

and having made some screens, 1 أور كُچه التَّبان بناكر درخَّمت كيے أوبر بانده لين tied (them) upon the tree.'

they found some of the young one's بتچوں کی کُچھ ھَڈیاں درخّمت کے بحے اور کینے گدھ کے کُھنڈھلے مسر بائبر.

bones under the tree, and some in the vulture's hollow.'

many men who were on its back, بہُت سے آڈمی کِ اُسْکِی پُشْت یر نہے گجھ ینسوٹیوں پراور کھھ سرکر جہاز پر آگئے

some in boats and some by swimming, came on board the ship.'

though of the interrogative کوئے, though of frequent occurrence in the older literature, is now seldom used.1

Rem. b. كوئى uninflected is sometimes used in connection with a توابی دن عریب خانے میں plural substantive denoting a thing; as 'grace for a few days this humble dwelling;' but this construction is not common, چند or کچه being more generally used in place of كولي 'a few,' and in the sense of some or certain, the pronominal adjective بغض or بعض being usually employed with a plural substantive: e.g.

'certain historians have written.' نغض مُوَرِّخِين نِه لِکها هَي

¹ Similarly of the two forms کدهٔو کدهٔو کدهٔو, the latter are now commonly used instead of the former.

it is the habit of some ignorant and 'بعضے جاهِل آور کمینے لوگوں کي low people.'

اً بعضي بعضي بعضي بعضي بعضور ميں 'I would question your Highness) معضور میں about-certain matters.'

Rem. c. کئي, as some grammarians suppose, but a distinct pronominal adjective, derived (like کي 'how many') from the Sanskrit कति kati.

Rem. d. The particle سا may be added to the indefinite pronouns to intensify the signification: as ما كونى سا any one whatever.'

400. In connection with a following negative the indefinite pronouns are equivalent to our 'no,' 'no one,' 'none,' 'none at all ' e.g.

'no (not a) rebel remained in the kingdom.'

'and it opened with no other key.' أوركسي أوركاجي سے نہ كنبلا ''no benefit will be derived.'

'no eatables and drinkables are کُجِند کھانے بسے کی چِبزیں اس obtainable in these parts.'

Rem. کُچنه in combination with other pronouns and pronominal adjectives has other significations, corresponding to our 'all,' 'ever so much,' etc.: e.g. أور مَس أبك ها تبول سے يه کُچنه دُکه ديکيول 'while I experience all this pain at their hands;' اگر کوئي ايک دانه بوتا هي تو أس 'if one sows a single seed, what an immense quantity springs from it!'

401. کُچنے مسلم and کُچنے میں, are equivalent to our one—another: e.g.

one says one thing, another (says) کوئی گُچہ۔ کہّتا ھَی کوئِی گُچہ

one commits a fault, another receives 'گناد کوئی کری سزا کوئی یاوی the punishment.'

one holds to a religion as an heir کوئی تو باب دادی کی میراث کے طَور پر کِسی مذهب کا قابض هَى ـ اور كِسِي نِهِ دُنْيا كِي دُولت وعزت کے واسطے منزلزل دین اِخْتِیار کر لِیا هی

loom from his ancestors, another has made choice of an unsound (lit. shaky) faith for the sake of worldly wealth and honour.'

Rem. The indefinite pronominal adjectives (e.g. فُلانا or فُلانه, فُلان 'such-and-such,' or substantively, 'so-and-so,' کئی 'several,' etc , § 155), are constructed as ordinary adjectives, and call for no special notice.

VI. THE REFLEXIVE PRONOUN.

402. The Reflexive Pronoun آپ 'myself,' etc., singular and plural (§ 150), is employed as an emphatic appositive تاكيد), see Rem. § 276) to a noun or personal pronoun (expressed or understood) which forms the subject of a sentence: as

> 'Mohan himself will come.' 'I myself went there.' مَين آب وهار گيا

for this reason (he) himself also إِس لِبِنْ وَوْد .80 آپ بھی عَیش used to live in ease and enjoyment.' 'nor shall (he) himself go near any أور نه (وُد عور) آپ كِسِي كے ياس

Rem. The emphatic هي may be added to وَد آپ هي آيا : e.g. آپ he himself came;' and instead of آب the Persian pronoun خود often occurs: as کود گریگا (sc. کُود کِ (تُو dig not 'dig not 'dig not a pit for any one, for you yourself will fall.'

403. آپ may also be added emphatically to its own inflected forms, and the word اپنے may even be omitted, as the personal pronoun in the Nominative is (§ 402): e.g.

in that case he should blame 'نواپنے آب کو ملامت کرنی himself.'

you consider yourself faultless.' تُو (اپنے مر) آد دو بے

'a darwesh, holding himself aloof ایک درویش (ابنیه se) آب کو دُنّبا (se یش (ابنیه from the throng of the world.)

Rem. b. آب is perhaps never used alone in the sense of 'self,' its original signification. When used without obvious reference to a distinct subject, it commonly relates to an unexpressed pronoun of the first person, or to an indefinite noun understood, and must therefore be rendered myself, or himself: e.g. آپ (se. بات (کوئي شخص (se. بات (se

404. a. The Genitive of آب , the Reflexive Pronominal Adjective أبنا, is always used in place of the Possessive

Adjectives تيرا my, otc., when these occur (in connection with a noun in the Accusative or in an oblique case) in the same sentence with the subject to which they refer: c.g.

Sindbad began to relate the story of ' سندّان نے اپنے دُوسْرِي سفر کا حال ' Sindbad began to relate the story of his second voyage.'

'I came out from my hiding-place.' بَس ایْنے چَبِیّنے کِي جگہہ سے باہر نِکلا

'and we sold our goods here and there.' أور هم نے اپّنا اسباب جا بجا بیتجا 'do you now go home.' اِس وقّت تُم اپّنے گھر جاؤ 'they took me along with them.'

b. But if the possessive adjectives occur in a sentence which has a distinct subject, or if they stand in the Nominative, the regular forms " ; etc., are used: e.y.

'they beat me and my son' مُجبَت اور مبري ببقے كو مارا 'my mind also coveted'

Rem. b. اپنا (as also میرا) is often omitted when no ambiguity can arise therefrom: e.g. (میرا) is often omitted when no ambiguity can trivial (my) 'I restrained (my) tongue from lying; غیبت سُننے میں جو مزا آتا تنا اُسکو دل سے بھالا دیا 'I effaced from (my) mind (lit. heart) the pleasure I used to derive from listening to slander.'

is also used substantively to signify my, thy, etc., property, or kindred: as

what has possessed thee, that thou تُجب کو کیا هُوا کِ دُوسَرا کا مال آپنا (callest another's property thine ?

they perceive no difference between ' اپنے اور بیگانے میں کُچھ فرق their kindred and strangers.'

'he came to his own.' اینوں کے پاس آیا

he came here himself, or of his own accord.'

'i' grows spontanecusly.' ُود آپ سے آپ اُگنا ھَي

Rem. In place of آپ سے آپ the Persian phrase نُحود به خُود به خُود is often used: as

'my mind of itself got so out of tone' طبعت خُود به خُود اَیسي بے (listless, lit. insipid).

CHAPTER X.

THE VERB.

a) VERBAL NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES.

I. THE INFINITIVE.

407. The Infinitive is properly a Gerund or verbal noun, and as such can form the subject or object of a verb, or stand in any case (except the Vocative), like any other substantive. It differs however from an ordinary substantive, 1) in being used in the singular number only; and 2) in taking an objective complement after it, if it be derived from an active-transitive verb: e.g.

to lie (or lying ') is wrong. 'جَهُوتُه بُولنا بُرا هَي 'the habit of jesting.'

when a bee of another hive wishes 'جب کوئي مکّبِي دُوسْري چهتّے to come.'

anger arises from reproaching 'سَرْزِنِش کَرِّنے سے غُضّہ پَیدا هوتا هي (= reproach).'

"what shame is there in eating?' كهاني ميں شرّم كيا هي

408. a. If only the objective complement of the infinitive (and not likewise the subject) be expressed, it may

¹ The English scholar will not require to be told that lying and to he are both infinitive forms.

be put in the Genitive, or either of the two forms of the Accusative: e.g.

they think nothing of uttering such ' أيسِي بات کے زبان سے نِکاٽنے میں ' they think nothing of uttering such ' words.'

ن گُل آلات کا بنانا سہایت هِي 'to make (or, the making of) all the implements (required) is highly inconceivable.'

they consider the seeing (= sight) ميرا ديكهنا منَّحُوس جائت هيں of me unlucky.'

'to leave his mark in the world.' خلَن مبس اپّني نشاني چهوڙنا

to sacrifice (one's) freedom cannot آزادِي کو کبو دینا کسِي حال میں in any case be deserving of commendation.'

b. But if the subject be likewise expressed, this is usually put in the Genitive, and the objective complement in the Accusative: e.g.

'Art's producing a resemblance to طبیعت کے ساتھ صناعت کا تشبّہ Nature.'

409. If the Genitive of the Gerund be subjective, or if it be governed by one of the postpositions واسطى, etc., it may generally be rendered by the English gerund with to: e.g.

the power to tell would fail me, and نه مُجب میں قُدَّرت کہنے کِی اَور the power to tell would fail me, and نه مُجب میں طاقت سُنْنے کِی the patience to listen (would fail) رهیگِی thee' (lit. 'the ability to tell will

not be in me, nor the power to listen in thee').

to break (lit. for the purpose of breaking) sticks.'

. 410. The Genitive of the Infinitive is commonly used in connection with the verbal negative نبين (§ 148, Rem.) to express a strong negative Future: e.g.

'he'll not do it, or he is not likely to do it.' وُد نَهِيس كَرْنِي كَا 'I shall not (am not likely to) remain.'

411. The Dative of the Gerund occurs after intransitive verbs, and such transitive verbs as govern both a dative and an accusative, and commonly expresses *purpose*; it may therefore be generally rendered in English by the gerund with to: c.g.

'he has come to see' وُه ديكنينے كو (= ديكنينے كے واسطے) آيا هي

give a house near yourself for me to اپنے نزدیک میری اُترنے کو مکاں stay in (lit. alight).'

Rem. The postposition کو is often omitted: as وي ديکينے (کو) گئے they went to see; کئی آئے کہیں 'they have come to examine thee.'

412. The Dative of the Gerund in connection with the verbs في and تبا expresses the intention to perform an act: e.g.

'he is going to write.' وَدَ لَكَمْنَ كُو هَي أَنْ اللهُ مُنِي حَلْنَ كُو تَعِ. 'I was going (or was about) to start.'

"It is difficult to distinguish this (i.e. the dative of the verbal noun)," a recent writer on Urdū Grammar observes, "from the infinitive; in fact the dative form may always be rendered by an infinitive." On this it is necessary to remark that the dative of the gerund is not the infinitive, although 'to' precedes it. In the expression "he liked to learn," to learn is the infinitive, and the object of the verb liked; but in "he came to learn," to learn is the gerund in the dative, and expresses the pur pose—"he came for learning."

'at the very instant that I was 'اُسِي وقّت کِ مَيں درّیا میں going to east myself into the sea,

a ship appeared far off coming (towards me).'

413. The Infinitive in combination with the verb $\[\psi \]$ is used to indicate the contemporaneousness of an action with another expressed by a finite verb in a following clause: *c.y.*

the young man had but just reached جوان کا دروازی پرآنا تها که وونم یس فرازی پرآنا تها که وینم یس فرازی برآنا تها که وینم یس فرازی برانا تها تها که وینم یس فرازی برانا تها که وینم یس

and they had scarcely put their feet أور پائو كوڙي ىر دھرنا تنها كِه گِر پڙي on the rubbish when down they fell (into the pit).'

414. The Infinitive is often used in the sense of the Imperative, in both affirmative and negative sentences, but generally with more force than the ordinary Imperative. The negative particles employed in this construction are 3 and ..., the latter being prohibitive: e.g.

'come to my place.' مسري هال آنا 'whatever they say, consider it true.' جویسے کہیں اُسکو سپے جائنا 'never think of this!' زِنْهار یہہ خیال نہ کرنا 'don't you go home to-day.'

415. Gerundive Forms.—The Infinitive or Gerund, not only of transitive, but also of intransitive verbs, is frequently used as a Gerundive, agreeing in gender and number with its object if the verb be transitive, or with its predicative noun if the verb be U... This construction (in

which the Gerund usually occurs in the nominative form as subject or object, but occasionally also in the genitive) is employed in two ways: 1) the Gerund (with its object, if the verb be transitive) in combination with one of the to be مونا verbs, متها , or one of the tenses of the verbs or become,' to fall,' or with such quasi-impersonal phrases as لازم هَي , مُناسب هَي , چاهيئه, etc., il is necessary, proper, or right, is used as an impersonal phrase to denote that a certain action is to be done (is settled to be done, should or must be done, is fit, proper, or necessary), the subject of the action (if a definite subject is spoken of) being put in the Dative: or 2) the Gerund with its object (if the verb be transitive), or its predicative substantive (if the verb be هونا), may form the subject, or object, of a following verb without expressing the idea of duty, etc: e.g.

'I have to go' (mihi cundum est). 1) 'I had to remain for (my) friend's sake.' 'you will have to write.' تُم كو لِكَيْمَنا هوكا

we shall have to endure the con' إس خلط فهُمِي كا نتِيجِه بِهُمَّننا پَرْبِيًّا sequences of this mistake (misapprehension).'

which of those matters that should جو کہنے کِي بات هَي کَونَسِي نہِيں 'which of those matters that should be spoken of do we not mention?' اگر تُم کو اَیسِي نا آشنائِي کرنِي

such unsociableness.'

**The works which a human being خوکام اِنْسان کو کرنے پڑتے هُبس

has to do.'

the seeker after it has to endure ' أَسْكِ طَالِبٍ كُو سَخَّت تَكْلِيفَ أُور مشتتين أتهاني يؤني هين severe trials and hardships.'

'we should now reflect a little.' اب همّکو ذرّه فِکْر کَرْنِی چاهِیک 'we should so act in (our) life-time.' وَنَدگِی میں اَیسے کام کَرْنے چاهِییں 'he should be punished,' or 'it is right to punish him.'

2) دُشَمَن سے دوسَّتِي کِي توقُّع 'it is unreasonable to expect friendship from an enemy.'

and I also practised physicing the ' أور بيماروں كو دوا داڑو دينيي بنجي sick.'

they began throwing huge stones ' بڙي بڙي پتير کشتيبوں کِي طرف at the boats.'

اگر نغْسِ ناطقه کے ٹُکّری هونے 'if the divisibility of mind (lit. of the rational soul) be possible.'

Rem. The choice between the Gerund and the Gerundive is determined entirely by euphony, or the mere pleasure of the writer. Some writers therefore retain the Gerund (فکر کرنی) more frequently than others. Dehlī authors exhibit a preference for the Gerundive (فکر کرنی). To say, as some grammarians do, that these Gerundive forms are "compounds, like 'fox-hunting,' 'speech-making,'" and that "compounds are occasionally found in which the words do not agree," is simply absurd. Perhaps these writers would say that in Ars puerorum educandorum difficilis est, "puerorum educandorum" is a compound, signifying "boy-educating." The Panjābī, we may observe, regularly uses the Gerund as a Gerundive. The Sindhī has a distinct Gerundive, differing however but slightly in form from the Infinitive: e.g. Inf.

11. THE NOUN OF AGENCY.

416. The Noun of Agency holds a middle position between the verb and the noun, and partakes of the force

of both, following the government either of the verb or the noun, or of both. If it be derived from a directly transitive verb and have the meaning of the Present or Future, it may take an objective complement in the Genitive or the Accusative; but if it have the meaning of the Perfect, it approaches more nearly to the character of the noun, and is therefore construed with the Genitive alone: e.g.

those who restrain (or shall restrain) غُصَّه فرو كرِّنب واليے their wrath.'

O builders of (ye who build) houses أي شهّر ميں گھروں كے بنانے والے in cities!

bring the writer of (him who has written) this letter to me.'

except this dog there was none ' سِوائے اِس گُتے کے کوٹی میرا who mourned for me (I had no mourner).'

417. It is also commonly used as the predicate of a preceding subject to express a proximate future: e.g.

he is about going to Dillī.' وُه دِلَّى جانے والا هَي 'he will die in (the course of) a day or so' (lit. to-day or to-morrow).

Rem. The above rules also apply to the Arabic and Persian nouns of agency and verbal adjectives which occur so commonly in Urdū; with this difference however, that when these govern the accusative, they generally stand as the predicate of a preceding subject: e.g.

'a seeker after rank and wealth.' مال و رُتْبه كا خواستُكار

'I am not a seeker of sustenance from heaven.'

'it will hinder us from (progress) in

all works.'

The construction with the genitive however is much the more common of the two, even in the case of the Hindi noun of agency.

III. THE PARTICIPLES.

- 418. The Participles express the same notion as the verb to which they belong, but (excepting the Past Conjunctive Participle) in the form of an Adjective. They follow the government of the verb from which they are derived.
- 419. The participles are frequently employed to describe a contemporary, past, or future, action connected with the main action. The relations and circumstances expressed by them must often be expressed in English by subordinate propositions with conjunctions (e.g. while, during, when, after, as soon as, etc.), or by phrases with prepositions.

a) THE IMPERFECT AND PERFECT PARTICIPLES.

- 420. The Imperfect and Perfect, or (if it belong to a transitive verb) Passive Participle have so much in common as regards their use and construction that they may be conveniently noticed together. When used adjectively they are usually distinguished by the addition to them of the perfect participle 'à; but this is often omitted.
- 421. These participles are frequently used to indicate the state or condition (حال) of the subject or object of an

action while the action is taking place. Their agreement with the *subject* is in such cases determined by the following rules:

- 1) If the subject of the participle be likewise that of the finite verb, the participle agrees with it in gender and number: *e.g.*
- (a). یبه کمتنی هُوئی چلِی گلِی "she went away saying this." نبه کمتنی هُوئی چلِی گلِی الله (the dog) came to the dungeon fighting and struggling with them (all the way)."
- الکرتي پڙتي بڙي وقت سے يہاں 'I dragged myself along and (lit. falling and lying I) got here with great difficulty.'
- 'all at once the mother entered her ایکبارگی اُسکی ما روتی پیالتی بیالی daughter's house weeping and beating (herself).'
- (b). دَسْتَرِخُواں بِحِهَا هُوا تَهَا 'the table-cloth was spread.' دَسْتُرِخُواں بِحِهَا هُوا تَهَا 'some woman was seated (or sitting).' 'his beard (which is quite) white hangs (is hanging) down to his breast.'
- 'grains (of corn) are lying before him.' اُسکے سام جنے دانے پڑی ہُوئے ہیں 'this brother was lying awake.' یہ بھائی لیٹا ہُوا جاگتا تھا
- the moment (that) some wine jars 'جونَّہیں رنّگت به رنّگت کے حِباب and flagons of various colours (which were) arranged on the shelves fell under my eye.'

- 'I saw pieces of diamond strewn 'مَسِنَ هِيرِي كَ أُكُّرِي پَهِيلَے هُوئِي about' (lit. 'pieces of diamond were seen strewn about by me').
- 2) But if the subject of the participles is not the same as that of the finite verb, both participles are constructed absolutely in the Locative singular, the postposition being suppressed; and the subject of the Imperfect Participle is often omitted: e.g.
- (a). نارِي رات تلپَّت كَتِي 'the whole night passed in restlessness' (lit. 'I being agitated').
 - 'I said, weeping and sobbing the 'is said, weeping and sobbing the 'while.'
- (b). فَانَ سَدَ الزَّمَّا بَعِزْمَا رَوَالِي كُو بَجَالَمَ (the dog) fighting and struggling with them came to the dungeon with the bread saved.
 - 'I was standing with my head hung 'نبر نبجے کیڈا تھا down.'
 - you go showing your back (your back shown).'
- In short he came to the mouth of خرض پیر زن کو لبئے خُوئے غار کے the pit with the old woman (the old woman brought with him).
 - the princess came out dressed in ملِک مَبلے کَبْرِی پہنے باہر نِکلِی dirty clothes.'
- 'I was sitting with my arm thrown مَين أُس جوان كِ كُلَّم مِين بانهم round the young man's neck.'

In this example the subject of the verb المنقود is the following clause (the or that which is said), and the subject of the participle is the pronoun of the first person—it was said by me (as follows), and I was recepting.

'I was under the impression that that defile would prove my grave' (lit. 'I existed, that defile thought my grave').!

'which were with their head to at of their holes.'

a snake is (there is a make with a frog caught' ('a snake is a no'l of a frog').

a (or the) python which is with (has) its mouth wide open.'

Rem. The subject of the participle must necessarily be different from that of the finite verb when the participle is passive and, together with its object (Acc.), forms the \mathcal{L} of the subject of the finite verb; for when this object takes the nominative form of the accusative, it stands as the subject of the participle, and when it occurs in the dative form, the construction becomes impersonal (§§ 306, 308). This will become evident if we take the first of the above examples (b) and resolve it into the different predications contained in it: e.g. 'the dog came to the dungeon, and he was fighting all the time he was coming, and the bread was saved by him,' or strictly, 'it was saved by him as regards the bread.'

We have thought it necessary to multiply examples on this subject, because, firstly, the subject is one of importance, and secondly, its treatment in all existing grammars is most unsatisfactory. One of the most recent actually teaches that and علي are not perfect, or rather passive participles, but "irregular forms of the conjunctive participle!" and that in the last two examples above ما المنافع على المنافع المنافع

- 3) If the Participle in either case be repeated for *emphasis*, or to indicate a *lasting* or *continuous state*, or even if such a state be implied without the repetition of the participle, it is always constructed *absolutely*, even though its subject be the same as that of the finite verb: *e.g.*
- (a). اَدْرُتے دَّرْتے دُرْتے مَیں پاس گیا 'I approached (it) in great fear (fearing much).'

'marching on stage by stage I مَنْزل دِ مَنْزل جِلْتِ جَلْتِ نَيشاپُور arrived in Naishāpūr.'

'we keep singing while we stitch.'

(but I wearied of sitting still.' لیکِی بے کار ببتھے بیتھے 'but I wearied of sitting still.'

'you have unjustly defamed and نوب نجینے بہتیے بتیایے disgraced me seated quietly (i.e. نرسوا کیا inoffensively).'

she, continued listening silently, ود چېکے بُت کِي طرح 'she, continued listening silently, سُنا کے

Rem. In sentences like the last but one, where the passive construction with ightharpoonup is used, and the first is simply a perfect participle, the second must take the form of its causative in order to possess a passive character; but the signification differs in no respect by this change.

422. a. When the participles describe the state or condition of the object, they are somewhat differently constructed. In such cases the object usually occurs in the dative form of the accusative, and hence the concord between it and the participle is disturbed: but whereas the Imperfect Participle may be optionally put in the nominative or the locative absolute, the Perfect, or

Passive Participle always takes the form of the nominative: e.g.

seeing him weeping he asked,' etc. أسي روتا ديكه كربوِّچها ك

(b). کیوڙي کو مینے سے تندها هُوا (I saw the horse fastened to a peg.'

from that time (forward) he thinks أُس وفّت سے مُجبہے مُوا هُوا شوا تصوّر كرّتا هي me dead.

he all along thought me (supposed ' وُد صُجِهَكُو تُّـوبا هُوا جانَّنا تَهَا that I had been) drowned.'

- b. The construction is the same if the object be a following clause introduced by Δ : as ایک روز کِتاب مبس بهِي لکها که 'one day he saw written in a book also, that,' etc.
- c. If the object occur in the nominative form of the accusative, the Participle will of course agree with it.

Rem. Of the two forms of the Imperfect Participle, the nominative is perhaps the correct one; at all events it is more in harmony with the construction of the Perfect Participle; and its regular use would moreover have the advantage of removing all ambiguity in sentences which have the passive construction with ... For example مندس نه signifies both 'I saw him whilst I was swimming,' and 'whilst he was swimming;' but if the participle be ترتا done of these significations is admissible.

423. a. Distinct from the use of the participles as a is their use to indicate that an action takes place immediately after or simultaneously with another action expressed by the finite verb. The emphatic particle is added to the Imperfect Participle to indicate exact coincidence in point of time in the two actions. In such cases the participles are always constructed absolutely.

The subject of the Imperfect Participle may be the same as that of the finite verb (whereby, as also by the partieiple not taking the adjective form with is, it is distinguished from the رأسم حاليه), or it may be different. the latter case, if the subject is expressed, it is put in the Formative or the genitive, the latter being the more common when the subject is animale.

The subject of the Perfect Participle is usually different from that of the finite verb, and is put in the Formative: e.q.

(a). افجر هوتے وُد رُخْصت هُوا 'he took his departure on dawn appearing.'

on the order being given they 'حکم ہوتے وُہ کبوڈنے لگے commenced digging.'

'as soon as the merchant saw (this), می خاطِر داری he ministered consolation.' کی 'immediately on hearing this, anger

¹ Some grammarians mistakenly suppose that the imperfect participle must always be inflected when the particle si is added to it, and hence pronounce this sentence ungrammatical· مُجهن جيتاهي زمين كا پَيونْد كردو 'Thrust me into the ground alive (as I am).' The sentence is however quite grammatical; is not the so-called "adverbial participle," but the half of the object mighe.

- 'I no sooner became detached than 'no sooner became detached than it swooped down upon a boa-constrictor.'
- (b). کُنُوں اِتَّنِنِي رات گُلُّه تُم آئِّه hour of the night?' ('when so much of the night is gone').
 - when one (the first) watch of the day was reached (when day had risen to one watch), I came down.'
- b. If the Imperfect Participle has an objective complement expressed, this is put in the accusative or the genitive: e.g.
- we all fled on the instant of seeing 'them.'
- the young man became as delighted 'جوان أَسُكَ ديكُمْتَ هِي أَيسا خُوش at the sight of her as if he had obtained the wealth of the world.'

Rem. The use of the objective complement in the genitive serves to show that the participle in such cases partakes of the character of the noun as well as that of the verb.'

- 424. In its adjective form either participle may be employed, 1) as an adjective defining a noun (either with the signification of a relative periphrasis, or to express a quality or state in general); and 2) as a substantive, concrete or abstract. As an abstract substantive the Imperfect Participle is equivalent to the Gerund: e.g.
 - 1) As an adjective:
- (a). سب میں نادان وُد هَي که 'unwisest of all is he who rouses slumbering strife' (cf. § 47, Rem. b.).

'a talking mainā.' ایک بولتی هُورِئی مَینا

'having seen a revolving millstone.' چڵتبی چگی دیکھ

if you bid (mo), I will leap into اگر حُکْم کرو تو جلتِي آگ میں burning fire.

(b). جما هُوا عرق كافُور كهّلاتا هَي 'the congealed juice is called camphor.'

نك لكها هوا كاغذ 'a written paper, or a paper with writing on it.'

'it may be some dead animal.' كوئي مُنوا جانّور هوگا

2) As a substantive.

(a). فربتے کو ننکے کا آسرا بہّت هي 'the support of a straw is ample for a drowning man' ('a drowning man clings to a straw').

'heawokeme from sleeping (= sleep).'

'to be confident because of possessing (= the possession of) property is

not well or becoming.'

(الله). أَزْمَائِي كُو بَشِرِكِيا آزْمَاوُنِ 'to what purpose should I again test what has been tested.'

ایا هوس 'I am come as the emissary of the snake.'

ا اینے کیئے سے پہیتاتا دُوں 'I am suffering remorse in consequence of my deed.'

'a band of those who had experienced ' راہ مبس ہزیمت کھائے دُووں کا defeat having arrived on the road.'

Rem. This use of the participles corresponds to that of the Active and Passive Participles—the إِسَم فَقُعُولُ and إِنَّم فَاعِلُ —of the Arabic.

425. The Perfect or Passive Participle is commonly used for the Infinitive, chiefly in connection with the quasi-impersonal verb چاهِبئے: c.g.

the work which (you) ought to do جو کام آج کِیا (= کرْنا) چاهیئے

we should not rejoice at (in con- دُشَمن کِی مَوت سے خُوش نہ هُوا sequence of) the death of an enemy.'

426. The Perfect or Passive Participle is also used as an abstract (verbal) substantive in combination with the verb جانا, when this is equivalent to هو سكنا, and in the Frequentative and Desiderative Compounds (§ 24 and Rem.); e.g.

'I could not drown myself' (lit. 'drowning was not possible by me').

'there's no fighting against fate.' تندير سے لڙا نہيں جاتا

الله نيس بهراكيا (lit. I did أس جنَّكُل ميں بهراكيا) '1 kept wandering about or made wandering) in that jungle the whole day.'

Rem. Observe also the following: ميرا كها مان 'mind what I say' (lit. 'my saying-what I shall say, or am about to say').

427. The Passive Participle, when governed by one of the postpositions بغير, or بغير, has in some instances an active signification: e.g.

that without my bidding (thee) thou کے بے میری کہے میری ساتھ کھانا catest food with me.' کہاتا ھَيَ 'how can he keep alive without

eating?'

b) THE PAST CONJUNCTIVE PARTICIPLE.

428. a. The Past Conjunctive Participle is very often used in Urdū so as to avoid the use of conjunctions where several predications are united in the one sentence: e.g.

'having said this, he went away.'

having invented some pretext, and 'خچه بات بناکراَور جواهراَور پوشاث having taken the jewels and dress, and having given the price thereof,

I requested permission to go' (i.e. 'I invented some pretext, and after taking the jewels and dress and paying for them, I requested,' etc.).

b. We sometimes find a preceding verb repeated in the participle: as

'he rose, and having risen went out.' وُد أُلَّهَا أُور أُلّهَا رَالَّهُ كُر باهر گيا 'the juice having flowed (out), عرق به كرايك برّتن ميں جمّع دوكر جم collects in a vessel, and having ellected, congeals.'

429. The participle most commonly refers, as in the above examples, to the subject of the finite verb, or, if the construction be passive, to the Agent. In the latter case, when the participle is $\mathfrak{adjective}$, and a predicative adjective or participle is joined to it, this, if capable of inflection, is always put in the inflected masculine singular: e.g.

the young man became cool and ' أس جوان نے رُوکنے بھیکے هوکر constrained, and said.'

and having become angry, I ordered أور كَيِسْيانِي هوكر فرَّمايا ك that,' etc.

'after that, having stood up, he read 'بعد أسك كهڙي هوكريه خُطّبه پڙها this discourse.'

430. But the participle may refer to the object (dative, accusative); and in the same sentence one participle may refer to the subject, and another to the Agent: e.g.

نیہ بات سُنگر مُجہے بہی 'having heard this, jealousy possessed me also.'

there is no assured refuge anywhere to خدا کے حُکم سے بھاگت کر

there is no assured refuge anywhere to خُدا کے حُکم سے بھاگت کر flee to from (God's decree' (lit. 'having fled, or fleeing from, God's decree, there is no assured refuge for you to go to').

at last, having made me promise and نجر وغدد أن چينزوں كو swear that I would return after leaving those things (at home), he let me go.

the princess having become pleased, the princess having become pleased, the trays (of jewels, etc.) were made over to the steward, and she said.'

431. The participle may even be used absolutely, without reference to a subject, as is the case when the finite verb is in the passive voice: c.g.

'he was dug out alive' (' they having dug, he was taken out alive').

432. The participle is often repeated for the sake of *emphasis*, or to indicate a *repeated* or *continued* action: as

we kept breaking the fruits and collecting them.'

پتہر مار مار کے سب کِشْتِیاں ڈُبو 'having kept on throwing stones, they sank all the boats.'

433. In some instances the Conjunctive Participle has all the force of an adverb, and would appear to be used as such: *e.g.*

'he did this wittingly' أُس نے جان نُوجِهِ كريهِ كام كِيا 'he laughed aloud' وُه كَهْلَكِهِلا كرهنسا

'I made that book over to him چہپا کر وُد کناب آور کتابوں کے secretly along with others.'

'I tied it tight.'

'he walks lame.'

b. THE INDICATIVE AND ITS TENSES.

I. THE ACRIST.

434. The Aorist, though more commonly employed in the Subjunctive Mood, is also used in propositions, both leading and subordinate, which deal with *facts*, whether actual or assumed for the purpose of argument; in other words, it occurs in the *Indicative Mood*.

The Aorist does not in itself express any idea of time; it merely indicates a begun, incomplete, enduring existence either in present or future time. Hence it has the signification of the English Present, as well as that of the Future Indefinite: e.g.

'God knows.' خُدا جانے

'now do what I tell (am about to tell) you.'

when does a noble-minded man 'خُوشامد کب کري عالِي طبِيعت ' when does a noble-minded man fawn upon the rich' (i.e. 'a noble-minded man never fawns upon the rich').

It came into my mind "I will 'پور سفر کرُوں 'It came into my mind "I will travel again."

when I die (shall die), bury me out 'جب مَيں مر جازُں گاڙ داب of sight.'

you sit here, I will go and announce ' تّم يہاں بَيتهو مَيں جاکر خبر کرُوں (your arrival).'

he said: Come, I'll take you to the 'اُس نے کہا چلو آج تُمہیں پاڈشاد king to-day.'

435. The Aorist is commonly used in proverbs: e.g.

when misfortune comes, a dog bites ' when misfortune comes, a dog bites ' when misfortune comes, a dog bites ' one (who is) mounted on a camel.'

one commits the fault, another is 'خُناه کوئِي کري سزا کوئِي پاوي punished for it.'

436. To render the idea of *present* time still more distinct, the auxiliary verb هُي, هُوں, etc., is added to the Λ orist: as

when I rub my eyes and look.' آنگئیس ملکرکے جو دیکئوں ھُوں ' when I rub my eyes and look.' آتِشِ عِشْق سے جلے ھَي دِل ' my heart burns with love's fire.' که کری ھي برگٹ گُل مرکب ' now it makes the leaf of the rose its steed' (i.e. ' one moment it mounts the rose, another it,' etc.).

But this form of the Present, though once very common, is now rarely used in Urdū (see § 189, Rem.).

437. As a present tense the Aorist is employed in narrative for a past (the *Historical Present*): e.g.

(الله ديکټُوں (= دیکټا) when I went forward and looked, lo! it was the princess' (lit. 'when, having gone forward, I look, lo! it is the princess').

it came (was coming, lit. comes) جي ميس آوي کِ يا اِلْهِي يِهه دم into my mind, "O God! if this breath of life depart, it is better."

- 438. The Aorist often occurs in a form identical with that of the Precative² (§ 176) in the three persons of the singular, and with nasal n added to that form in the plural: e.g.
- I Most European grammarians ignere this tense altogether, and those who do notice it wrongly term it "a perfect," and generally mistake for it the perfect participle when this is used as a hāl in connection with a subject that has for its predicate one of the verbs of connection with a subject that has for its predicate one of the verbs of connection with a subject that has for its predicate one of the verbs of connection with a subject that has for its predicate one of the verbs of connection with a subject that has for its predicate one of the verbs of connection with a subject that has for its predicate one of the verbs as a hāl, and the translation should be a snake is (there is a snake) with a frog caught. As a finite verb pakre hai would signify "catches," not "has caught."
- ² It does not follow that because this form is identical with that of the precative, therefore this, or, as the grammarians phrase it, "the respectful imperative," is used for the aorist. In the use of these precative forms the Hindi and Urdi follow the Präkrit pretty closely, and the following extracts from the Prākrita-Prakāśa (ed. Cowell, sect. vii. 20, 21) show that they are not used the one for the other, but that, though connected both in form and signification, they are yet distinct: "Jja, jjā are optionally substituted for the proper affixes of the present and the definite future, and also when command, etc., are implied: e.g. hojja, hojjā, or hoi, 'he is;' hasejjā, hasejjā, or hasaā, 'he laughs;' (and the same form applies to the three persons in both numbers;) future hojja, hojjā, hohii, 'he will be;' and similarly in the sense of the imperative." "Jja, jjā are also optionally inserted between the root and the affixes" in the same tenses; "as (present) hojjā, hojjāi; (future) hojjāhii, hojjāhii; (imperative) hojjāi, hojjāi; 'this however only occurs "when the root ends in a vowel, and is therefore monosyllabic,"

(when I reached the garden), the میری دِل میں یہہ خیال گُذْرا thought entered my mind, This time I will plant a vine.'

what shall I say respecting those کیا کہبئے اُن لوگوں کو جو نا فرمانِي eople who, having rebelled, unjustly turn away from Him?'

Rem. Additional examples of this form of the Aorist will be found under the Subjunctive Mood, in which it more commonly occurs.

in the sense and after the manner of opus, necesse, est, 'it is necessary,' debet, 'it is proper or right,' operfet, 'it-behoves,' with an infinitive, or a gerundive and its substantive, or a perfect participle used as a gerund (§ 425), as the subject, the true subject or agent of the act usually preceding in the Dative, if a definite agent is implied; the agent, however, is not always expressed—rarely so if the idea of duty, etc., implied in the phrase chāhiye is of general application, or if the infinitive is accompanied by an object in the dative form of the accusative: e.g.

whatever the master wants is ready ' جو صاحب کو چاهیئے سب ' whatever the master wants is ready ' فرخود هَي (to be had).'

the king) should keep these people under subjection' (lit. 'to keep these people under subjection is necessary for the king').

'we should now consider a little.' اب ھمکو فارد فِکُر کُرْني چاهبئے۔ 'one should perform such acts' زِنْدگي ميں آيسے کام کُرْنے چاهِييں in life.' 'I ought to go once there also.' ایک دفعه وهاں بھِي چلا (= چلنا) چادبئے

چادبئے

'the explanation of this should be 'تنسیر اسکی عالِموں سے پُوچیا asked of the doctors of religion'

(lit. 'asking the explanation of this of the doctors is necessary').

Rem. a. The agent of the act is sometimes put in the genitive in construction with an Arabic nomen actionis; as فنيركا عمل أن پر a faḥīr should act upon them.' And if the thing necessary or requisite be a quality, or that which should be found in some person or thing, the locative is generally used instead of the dative: e.g. وي 'what special qualities are those which a messenger should possess?' ('which are requisite in a messenger').

Rem. b. جاحدت is also very commonly used in the Subjunctive Ylood: the infinitive is then replaced by the ordinary Aorist, which follows جاحبت, and is preceded by £ (= Latin ut), the agent of the act either preceding chāhaye in the dative, or following it in the nominative: e.g. بادشاد كو چاحيات كران لوكون كو معلوب ركبي 'the king should keep these people under subjection.'

Rem. e. The phrases فيم بالزم هي, نظرور هي, it is necessary, right, or proper, are used in the same way as چاهيد , chiefly in the Subjunctive.

Rem. d. According to some European grammarians any "Respectful Imperative," as they term it, may be used "with a sense of obligation, and may be translated ought, should, or must." This however is not correct; chāhuye alone can, of itself, be so used. The examples given by them are such as the following: السي دريافت كيجيد (not "from this one ought to learn"); السي العبيد أور باسباني كيجيد أور باسباني كيجيد أور باسباني كيجيد أور باسباني كيجيد

and watch' (not "we must stay in this wood and keep watch"); تكبير (my) ' دروازي کي طرف لگئ رهي تبيس که ديکهيے کيا ظاهِر هوتا هي eyes were kept fixed on the door to see (lit. saying to myself "Let me see") what was (lit. is) about to appear' (not "my eyes were fixed on the door, and I said I must see," etc.).

440. To imply that an act should or ought to have been done, the phrase چاهیئے is employed : as

thy nest ought to have been (built) تیرا گیونسالا ایک کائٹے کے در خت میں یا کِسی دِیوار کے اُوپر in some thorny bush or on the top of a wall, (and) not in the king's چاھِیے تہا نہ باڈشاہ کی • حل palace.' سرا مس

Rem. The same phrase is used in the Subjunctive also (§ 167, Rem. c).

II. THE FUTURE INDEFINITE.

441. Although the Aorist itself has the signification of the simple Future, yet to render the futurity of the act quite distinct, the perfect participle & (see § 187) is added to it; and thus the Future also derives the signification of an Intentional and a Desiderative: e.g.

I shall see,' and 'I wish to, or

eventually I shall die, and what ' eventually I shall die, and what ' answer shall I then give to God?' معضي بعضي باتيس حُفُور ميس 'I would question Your Highness رُوحِيُّونَگا مُعُور ميس about certain matters.'

442. The participle & is also added to the Precative form of the Aorist to form the Future: e.g.

wilt thou (wouldst thou, is it thy) يَيدا كيجبيگا آب أس شخص كو جو رُوئ زمیں پر فساد آور خُون ریزی کری

intention to) create a being who will work mischief and shed blood on the face of the earth?'

'if you pull (will pull) so (i.e. as you 'if you pull (will pull) so (i.e. as you کو نہ حنوڙيگا

are going to do), it will not leave hold of the pulp of the brain.'

Rem. The Future and the Aorist being thus intimately connected, we often find the one used for the other, especially in conditional and hypothetical sentences, where in English the Present Indicative, or the اگر دير لٽاؤنگا تو وي اس eresent or Future Subjunctive, is used; as if I tarry long, he in this state of ' پبری میں روتے روتے مرجائینگے old age will weep himse.f to death; أَسْكَ فَزْدِيكُ جَاوُكِي تُوكُّنَيُّار '; ألم 'if you go near it you sin' (lit. 'will become a sinner'); غرفك مُجه مس فُذرت كمَّنے كِي أور نه تُجه مس طاقت سُننے كِي رهلگِي 'for (were I to attempt it), I should not have the power to tell, nor you the patience (lit. power) to listen.'

III. THE PRESENT TENSE.

443. The Present Tense is used to indicate an act which is now taking place, or a repeated, habitual, or enduring act; it also commonly expresses a universal truth, e.g.

> "what is he doing?" وُد كيا كُرْتا هَي what are you looking at?' or 'what ' کیا دیکہتے هو do you see?'

'I understand all this that you are جو گُچه تُو كَهْتا هَي مَيں يِهِ۔ سب saying.'

'men conform to the ways of their ترمِي اپنے پاڈشاهوں کے طرِیقے kings.'

this sun and moon are revolving ' رات دن پہہ مِہرُوماد پھِڑتے کھیں night and day.'

Rem. a. An act which is now taking place may also be expressed by using the perfect participle of a verb compounded with in place of the imperfect participle, for in both cases the participle is used as a hāl: e.g. (a) = (a) + (a) + (a) = (a) + (a) + (a) = (a) + (a) +

Rem. b. The auxiliary, both in this tense and the Perfect, occasionally takes the form هُمِيًا, which is generally more emphatic than وَهُ عَلَى اللهُ الله

444. The auxiliary is often omitted, chiefly in negative sentences (cf. \S 148, Rcm.), and the Present then assumes the form of the Past Conditional, but the two tenses must not be confounded: c.y.

the people of the caravan do not فافِلے کے آڈمی اِس لِیڈے نہیں 'the people of the caravan do not mention (it), because you would be ashamed.

'no one falls into a well of himself.' کوئِي آپ سے دوسے میں بہیں دریا

And in two co-ordinate sentences, the verbs of which are both in the Present, the auxiliary of one may be omitted, unless emphasis requires it to be repeated: c.g.

'.she neither moves nor stirs' وُد نه هِلَّتي هَي نه گُلَّتِي

445. The Present Tense is commonly used in narrative for a past for the sake of greater vividness (the Historical Present): e.g.

when I rubbed my eyes and looked آٽکھيس ملکر جو ديکھتا هُوں نو أس مكان مس نه وُه بُوڙها هي نه کوئی آورکھی

(lit. when, having rubbed my eyes, I look), lo! neither that old man nor any one else was (lit. is) in that house.'

كُون سُنْتا هَي

thereupon we began to weep and پیر رونے لگے اور فزیاد اور زاری to cry aloud and wail, but what comes of it? and who hears?' (i.e. nothing came of it, etc.).

446. The Present Tense is also frequently used for the Future to indicate that an action will take place forthwith, or shortly after the time of speaking: e.g.

'.you go, I also am coming (immediately)' نُم چلو میں بیبی چلتا هُوں 'I will this instant give the order.' مُسِن ابنِي حُكْم كُرْتا هُون 'I shall speedily return.' جند يهر آتا هُون

447. The Present Tense is occasionally employed in conditional sentences as a Future Subjunctive: as

if I too forlid (her), I shall be أكر مَسِين بهي منَّع كرَّتا دُون instant تو ابيي مَينا کي طرح سے مارا been.' instantly killed as the mainā has

if I come according to my plighted ' اگر مَسِ اَپْنِي باني پر آتا هُوں تو word, I will mingle his kingdom ملاديتا هُم with the dust.'

¹ That is to say, " if I say I will come and do come." We know of no authority for the meaning of "one's own might," which is given to the word bant in the vocabulary of the Tota Kahani. The word means simply 'speech,' 'word,' and the phrase bānī par ānā is explained by Urdū sel plars as we have translated it.

Rem. An act which it is intended to perform (the Present Intentional) is expressed as in English: e.g. وُد لِكَيْنَ كُو هَي 'he is going to write' (see § 412.)

IV. THE PAST IMPERFECT TENSE.

448. The Past Imperfect Tense indicates an action which was going on at some past time spoken of: as

he was wandering about, looking around ' هر طرف دیکهّتا پهِرْتا تها him.'

'a very soft breeze was blowing.' هَوَا نَرْمَ بَهْتِي تَهِي

Rem. The same idea is expressed by using the perfect participle of a verb compounded with رهنا in place of the simple imperfect participle; فره نها رهبي (=نهاتبي) تجيي 'she was bathing;' مُبس آجِست آجِست بيه. 'I was repeating this verse in a very low voice.'

449. In many cases this tense must be rendered by the English Past Indefinite: as

'he did whatever they told him (at the time).'

inasmuch as he was aware of his 'inasmuch as he was aware of his ازبسکِ خیر خواهِي اَور تذَّبِير آور loyalty, judgment, and devotion.'

450. The auxiliary is often omitted: e.g.

every one I saw (at the time) جو کوئي آڏمِي ميرِي نظر پڙتا forbade me.'

I As this tense then assumes the form of the Past Conditional, it is very generally mistaken for the latter by European grammarians. The two tenses, however, are essentially different, the one occurring in the Indicative Mood alone, the other only in the Subjunctive, and never admitting of the auxiliary after it, as the Imperfect Indicative does. Nor can either of these tenses ever have the signification of the Present, as the grammarians affirm.

if she did not bring water, he (the 'اگر وُد پانِي نہ لاتِي تو بِهہ اُسکے dog) broke her vessels.'

Rem. In two coordinate sentences, the verbs of both of which are in the Past Imperfect, the auxiliary is usually expressed with the last -he was thank ' وُه شُكْرِخُدا كا كرَّتا أور گُوچ در گُوچ چلا جاتا تها alone: as ing God and going on stage by stage.'

451. The Past Imperfect is frequently used to indicate an act that was wont to be done, and the auxiliary is then often omitted: c.g.

'they used to name that pit Solomon's أس خُوئے كا نام زِنْدانِ سُلَيمان

Prison.'

Prison.'

I effaced from my mind the pleasure

'I was wont to derive from listening to slander.'

'and that complexion (or colour) أور وُه رنَّكَ جو كُنْدن سا دمكتا تها which used to glisten like bright gold became like turmeric.'

when he used to return from his جِس وقت سفرسے آتا هر ايک travels, he was wont to bring مُلْکُ کَا مُحَمَّفَه به طریق سَوغات curiosities of each country (he visited) as presents for me' (lit. 'and used to give them to me').

V. THE PAST INDEFINITE TENSE.

452. The Past Indefinite Tense indicates an action completed at some past time, and is commonly employed in narrating past events which do not involve the idea of duration. Its passive construction (when the participle

¹ See note on preceding page.

is passive), as also that of the other past tenses composed of a passive participle, has been explained in § 185, 191, etc.: e.g.

'he left it at my house on his way.' ود نميري مكان ير دى گيا 'he took the road to the desert.'

453. a. After the conditional particles جو, اگر, 'if,' and after other particles (e.g. -, which imply the conditional meaning of \$1, the Past Indefinite often takes a future sense, the condition being represented as already fulfilled; but it may be rendered in English by the Present: as

(if this secret is (lit. was, or became) اگر يه راز فاش هُوا تو تيري حق میں بہُت بُرا ھَی divulged, it will be (lit. is) very bad for you.'

but I have a work (for him to do), أبكِن أيك كام همارا هَي _ أكّر وُد اِس سے هو سکا اُور خِیانت نہ كِي أُورِ به خُوريني انْجِام دِيا أُور اِس اِمْتِحان ميں يُورا أُترا۔ تو مَیں قُول قرار کڑتا ھُوں کِ زِیادہ مانشاه سے سُلُوک کُونگا

if that can be done by this (youth), and he practises no treachery, but accomplishes it satisfactorily, and comes out perfect in this ordeal, then I promise that I will deal with him better than any king.'

b. The verbs of the principal clauses in the above sentences are in the Present and Future, but the Past Indefinite is also employed to indicate an act, the occurrence of which is so certain, that it may be described as having already taken place: as

سي باتيل سُننے لگا أور اصل حال کِی تَحْقِیق پر اِلْتِفات نہ کی _ تو طرح طرح کی خرابیاں پیدا

'if the king begins to listen to the mis' اگر پاڈشاہ اَیسے لوگوں کِی جُهُولیہ representations (lit. false and true words) of such persons, and does not attempt to inquire into the actual facts of the case, various kinds of evils will result (lit. have resulted).

VI. THE PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

454. The Present Perfect (or Past Proximate) Tense indicates an act which at the moment of speaking has been already completed, and remains in a state of completion: c.g.

'he is gone to Känhpūr (Cawnpore).' 'the Rāja Ṣāḥib has killed a tiger.' واجه صاحِب نے شیر مارا هی

455. The auxiliary is often omitted, or in other words the Past Indefinite is used for the Present Perfect: e.g.

these four things that have been ' يبه چار باتيں جو أوير بيان هُوئِس mentioned above.'

'naught but injury can proceed from جم گیا (هی .80) اُس سے بجُز him in whose breast hatred has ض، کے کھنے فائدہ حاصل نہ ہوگا established itself.'

Rem. In the colloquial the Present Perfect is frequently used for the Present in the sense of the Proximate Future, and in such cases the هماري ٿوپي اور چڼڙي (Master log.) هماري ٿوپي اور چڼڙي 'i am ' لايا صاحِب (Servant) ' pring my hat and stick quickly;' (Servant) جلَّد لأوَّ bringing it, Sir' (lit. 'I have brought').

VII. THE PAST PERFECT TENSE.

. 456. The Past Perfect (or Past Remote) Tense indicates that an act had taken place at the time spoken of, or anterior to some other past event spoken of or implied: e.g.

'hehad come walking from a distance' وُد دُور سے چلکر آیا تھا 'I had never heard such a thing.' مَیں نے اَیسِی بات کیھِی نہ سُنی تھِی

But the auxiliary is often omitted, or in other words the Past Indefinite is used for the Past Perfect. It must however be rendered in English by the Past Perfect: e.g.

ایا سمجهایا 'I had reasoned a great deal with (انها عند کو بہّت سمجهایا Zaid.'

457. The Past Perfect is often used where in English we use the Past Indefinite; usually so when the action is regarded by the narrator as completely past, so that its results have already become manifest at the time spoken of; or when it is implied that since the occurrence of that action, another, in some way connected with it, has occurred: e.g.

'and whatever I (had) promised when 'اَور جب شیرنے میری تئیں تیری the lion (had) sent me to bring نے عہد و پَیماں کِیا تھا thee.'

the cat came (lit. had come), (and) I بِلِّي آئِي تَهِي مَيں نِے أَسْكُو تَتُّولا تَهَا 'لمان لَّهُ اللهُ ا

Rem. The Past Perfect Indicative is sometimes used for the Past Conditional, for the sake of greater vividness: as اُس دوسّت نے مُجهد انا دُشمن نہ ہوتا تو کام میرا ہاتھ سے جا چُکا ہلاک کِیا تھا۔ اگریہہ دانا دُشمن نہ ہوتا تو کام میرا ہاتھ سے جا چُکا

rethat friend well nigh destroyed me: if it had not been for this wise enemy, my work was well nigh gone from my hands, and my life brought to a close in this vain idea.'

c. THE IMPERATIVE.

458. The Imperative has only the second person singular and plural; the other persons are supplied by the aorist. It has two forms, the Imperative proper, which is used in giving orders, directions, or advice, and the Precative (§ 176), which implies simple request, advice, entreaty, or exhortation.

Rem. The second of the Precative forms, however, often has the force of a command, as will be seen from the examples given below.

- 459. The Precative again has two forms, one ending in عرب, the other in بالم , both of which are used in either the singular or plural, the former always in connection with the pronomen reverentiee بالم , expressed or understood, the latter with the personal pronouns تُر 'thou,' and تُر 'you.'

'mind what I say, and chase this 'mind what I say, and chase this vain desire from thy mind.' کو دِل سِے نِکال 'you sit here.'

mention to this slave anything you 'جو کُچے درکار هو اِس خانه زاد کو may require.'

'come again when you have spent إس كو كها پيكر پهر آثيو أور جو this, and take whatever you want.'

'when she asks thy story, thou shalt 'جب تیرا اخّوال پُوچھے تُو کہِبو 'when she asks thy story, thou shalt say: I am an inhabitant of Persia.' say: I am an inhabitant of Persia.' 'and if not, do (i.e. you shall do) unto me whatever you please.'

Rem. The English Imperative being used to express a request as well as an order, it is not at all necessary to employ such phrases as "please to do," or "you will be pleased to do," etc., in rendering the Precative forms; nor indeed do these phrases at all represent the idea in a native's mind when he uses a Precative. We have repeatedly observed, that when a native scholar well acquainted with English is asked to render in Urdū such an expression as "please do this," he invariably uses the phrase az rāhē mihrbūnī isho karo or kījiye. It is evident too that in not a few cases the phrases "please to," etc., cannot be applied: as for example in the following sentence, in which the speaker is soliloquizing: بعباري أور گندهك كو چراخ ميں بني كي آس پاس sprinkle alum and sulphur in a lamp, round about the wick, no matter how strong a wind blow, the lamp will not be extinguished.'

461. The Precative ending in o is also employed in benedictions and imprecations: e.g.

'! may you be happy' خُوش رهيو

may the curse of God be upon تُحدا كِي لعّنت كافِروں آور مُشْرِكوں 'may the curse of God be upon infidels and believers in a plurality of gods!'

in connection with the Imperative usually express a strict negation, but the former is occasionally prohibitive (especially in connection with the Precative ending in iyo); the negative is used in a prohibitive sense, and hence occurs with the Imperative or Precative alone: e.g.

'be not afraid.' تُو ڌَر نهِيں 'be not afraid.' آخِرت کے سامان کڑنے میں 'neglect not to make preparation for فغلت نہ کر 'the world to come.'

'don't go home to-day.' آج گھر مت جاؤ

'rely not on their friendship.' أَن كِي آشْنائِي كَا إِغْتِماد نـ كريـــ

'you are not to approach this tree' (or 'thou shalt not go near this tree').

'you will not forget' ('take care that you don't forget').

Rem. As the negative $\dot{\omega}$ does not occur in the $B\bar{a}g$ o $bah\bar{a}r$ in connection with the Imperative, therefore, we suppose, the European grammarians say, that it "is not used with the Imperative." That it is so used will be seen from the first of the above examples, and we may add that (though not so common as $\dot{\omega}$) it is by no means uncommon in such cases.

463. The Aorist, which is connected with the Imperative both in form and signification, is used instead of it in the first and third persons, but usually with less authority than the Imperative: e.g.

what was it that he said? let me 'وُه کیابات تَغِی؟ ذَرّا مَیں بھی also just hear.'

'let us see what is recorded in her دیکھیں اِس کے نصیبوں میں کیا destiny.'

نو خبردار رهِيو اَيسِي حركت نه 'you will be careful: let her not صحوب 'you will be careful: let her not move so that the stitches give way.' الله أوت جائيس أوي 'let no one come near me' (not, "no one must come near me:" see Rem. d, § 439).

but let the princess promise this, لیکِن ملِک اِس کا قَول قرار کریِں کِ to wit, that she will not withdraw from what she has said' (not, "the princess must promise, etc.").

الله نه حاصِل کڑنے کے لِیئے عُمّر 'let no one plead advanced age as 'let no one plead advanced age as 'let no one plead advanced age as 'an excuse for not acquiring (not trying to attain to) perfection.'

464. Reversely, the Imperative is occasionally used for the second person singular of the Aorist, usually in the first of two correlative clauses which follow a particle implying a condition or the relative pronoun, when the second clause contains an Imperative: e.g.

'do whatever you think proper.' جو مُساسِب جان (= جانے) سو کر

Rem. The use of the Imperative for the Aorist is not so common as the grammarians suppose; it occurs, we believe, only in sentences of the description mentioned above. In the following examples the last verb is not "an Aorist in the Imperative form," but a simple Imperative: الما الما أيسا كام كرك شهزادي كو فريب سے مار دال 'do so (or act in this wise): kill the prince by stratagem' (not, "act in such a manner as to kill, etc.," for \leq here is simply explicative, and does not denote the

purpose or object of the verb in the first clause); جب تأويار چَلْنے 'in the mean time you make some arrangement to cross over' (not, "whilst thou formest some plan, etc.").

465. The Imperative, singular and plural, of the verb 'to take,' is often used as an interjection, signifying there or there now! enough! peace! etc.: e.g.

'enough! go on with thy work.' لے آپنا کام کر 'there now! I have told you my کے مَیں نے آپنی حقیقت سب whole history.'

there! you have seen me; is your ' لو مُجهت دیکها خاطِر جمّع هُوئي mind relieved?'

'I said: Now have done! you have tried subterfuges enough.'

d. THE SUBJUNCTIVE AND ITS TENSES.

I. THE AORIST.

- 466. The Aorist is used in the Subjunctive Mood, as a I'resent or Future, in correlative conditional clauses that depend upon اگر, or any particle having the sense of اگر. The conditional clause commonly precedes the principal clause (but it may follow it), and is separated from it by the جواب شرط, or correlative particle, بر which is generally not translated. The Aorist is used in one or both clauses, according to the following rules:
- 1) a. If both the conditional and the principal clause imply uncertainty, doubt, possibility, or indefiniteness, the Aorist is used in both: c.g.

'if he should come, what am I to do?' اگر وُه آجاوي تو كيا كرُون if permission be granted, I will state 'if permission be granted, I will state their case in your presence.'

رنُّبُور عسل

honey would drop from the colo- حنظل سے شہّد تیکے جو لگے نشتر cynth-gourd if the sting of the honey-bee were to touch it.'

b. The Present Potential occasionally occurs in place of the Aorist in the principal clause: e.g.

if one look at the princess's do- 'if one look at the princess's كِيجِيب تو أُسْكِي آمد فقط باورچی خانے کے خرچ کو بھی کِنایت نہ کرتی ہوگی

minion, its revenue probably does not suffice (may not be sufficing) for the expenditure of the cuisine alone.'

c. And an Imperative may take the place of the Aorist in the conditional clause: as

'warm a little water and I'll bathe.' تبورًا پانِی گرم کر دي تو نهاؤں دي دي اجاگتا مجهد دي 'bestow on me a living son, then will my name and the trace of this 'empire endure نِشانِ قائِم رهي

Rem. The Aorist of the conditional clause may often be rendered in English by the Past Imperfect, as in the third of the above examples.

2). If the condition be regarded as uncertain, or only possible, etc., while the conditioned is regarded as certain and positive, the Aorist is employed in the conditional, and the Present or Future Indicative in the principal clause: as

'if you come, it is well.' أكر چلو تو احبها هي 'if it succeed, it is a great matter.' اگر بن آوي تو بڙي بات هَي any one who pretends to this is a 'جو کوئي دغول کري اِسّکا برّا نادان 'great fool.' هي ماونت اُسِي کو حاصِل هوگي کِ

Rem. a. The Relative Pronoun, implying as it often does a virtual hypothesis, is commonly followed by the Subjunctive, as in the last of the above examples. (cf. § 388, Rem.)

Rem. b. The Future is often used in the conditional clause also, and occasionally where the idea of certainty is, to say the least, not very prominent (see § 442, Rem.); but wherever this idea is prominent, the Indicative is used in both clauses: e.g. اگر جند آوگے تو منجہے جستا 'if you come soon (as I expect, or am sure, you will), you will find me alive.'

with one or other of the conjunctions جو 'that,' ζ (= Lat. ul), خو 'in order that' (= Lat. quo), بشرطیک 'in order that' (= Lat. quo), بشرطیک 'it may be that, perchance,' etc., to express an object or purpose, effect or consequence, resolution, hope, desire, disinclination, order, udvice, necessity, duty (as signified by the phrases جامبئے , ازم کی etc. see § 439 and Rem. b.), effort, permission, fear, etc.: e.g.

'I determined to go (that I would وَصَد كِيا كِ أُس راه سے چلوں go) by that road.'

it appears better for men that they آذمیوں کے واسطے یہہ بہتر معلّوم become recluses.'

¹ This construction, which is found in the Persian also, would appear to be derived from the Arabic.

the king should so treat his lords ' یادشاہ کو چاهیئے کہ اُمرا اَور ارکان دولت سے آیسا بڑتاؤ کری کِ أُنْكو يادّشاه كِي مُوافقت أور نيک خواهِي کا يقِين هوجائے

and nobles that they may be assured of His Majesty's sympathy and good-will.'

a messenger (or cmissary) should be عاهِیتے کِ قاصِد فاضِل هو one possessed of learning.'

ماهتت در یافت کری

'if you have great desire to know اگر تُجھے آرزُو کمال هي ک يہ this matter.'

I am afraid that he may not perhaps 'مَين دَّرْتا هُوں كِ شايد دُعائيے بد نه کر*ی*

curse me (or, according to an idiom of the language, 'that he may curse me').

Socrates (or, according to Johnson's 'نَقَراط نِم الک زبان دراز عَورت سے شادِي كِي تاكِ اپْنِي **تُوتِ** غضبِي کو مغلوب کری

Dictionary, Hippocrates) married a shrew in order to subdue his passion of anger.'

provided there be not as much as a ' بشرطیکِ جهُوته اِس میں کَورِّي بهر نه هو kauṛī of untruth in it.'

perhaps his hand (treatment) may شاید (که .so.) اُس کا هاته راس آوی prove successful.'

Rem. a. In sentences signifying purpose, resolution, wish, etc., the Aorist may generally be rendered in English by the gerund with to. since this corresponds to the genitive (subjective) or the dative of the Urdū gerund, and this may in most cases be substituted for the construction with the Aorist: e.g. the first of the above examples may also be constructed thus: مَين نے أُس راه سے چلنے كا قصد كِيا; and the .اگر تُجهي اِسَ ماهِيّت كي دريافت كرني كو آرزُو كمال هي .fith thus:

Rem. b. The direct oration often occurs in such subordinate clauses as express purpose or resolution: آئر قصد کیا کے بہن کے پاس چلیے 'and determined to go to my sister' (lit. 'that I will go'); آئکہیں دروازی 'my eyes were 'پی طرف لگت رهي تعیس کے دیکیہے کیا ظاهر هوتا هي kept fixed in the direction of the door to see what was going to appear' (lit. 'saying to myself, Let me see what is going to appear').

Rem. c. The phrases چاهِیئے, چاهِیئے, etc., may also be constructed with the infinitive (§ 439, and Rem. b. and c). In reference to past time these phrases take the forms لزم تها, چاهِیئے تها, and are followed by with the Past Perfect Subjunctive (the Past Conditional): e.g. نهالب رهّتے 'Your Majesty ought to have subdued your wrath.'

468. The Aorist is used to express a wish which, generally speaking, is regarded as attainable: as

'may your life be prolonged! your 'عُمْر تيري بڙهي دَولت دُو چنْد wealth be multiplied!'

469. The Aorist is used in questions indicating doubt or perplexity: as

''O God! what am I to do now?' الرَّبِي اب کیا کُرُوں ' what should I say? and of whom کیا کہُوں اَور کِسّکا شِکّوہ کُرُوں 'should I complain?'

should I call it Indra's court, or a ' إنَّدركا اكبارًا كَهُونُ يَا يُرِيونَ كَا أَتَارًا descent of fairies?'

470. The second person, singular and plural, of the Acrist is used as a disjunctive conjunction: e.g.

I say nothing: remain or go (as you please).'

II. THE PRESENT POTENTIAL.

471. The Present Potential, as its name implies, occurs chiefly in potential propositions, with a definite or indefinite subject, and indicates that a thing may, might, or must be happening: it corresponds therefore to the English Present Imperfect Subjunctive. It stands to the Aorist in the same relation as the Present Imperfect Indicative to the Present Indefinite; and hence the Aorist is often used in its place. Of the two forms in which it occurs, that in which the future of the verb فونا is used may occasionally be rendered in English by the Future Imperfect Indicative; but those who speak the language recognize no distinction between the two forms. The following are examples of its use:

what must he be thinking?' (lit. 'saving in his mind').

perhaps you think (lit. may be شاید تُو جانّتا هوگا که مُجّکو یہ سب فراغت أور دولت ہے مشقت حاصِل هوئِي

thinking) that I have become possessed of all this comfort and wealth without trouble.'

thousands of such poor people must أيسے غريب هزاروں تُمهاري مُلْكوں میں آتے جانے ہونگے

be constantly passing through (lit. may be coming and going in) your dominions.'

ساست کے قاعِدی خُوب جانّتا هو

-that ruler ought to be well ac وه حاکم أيسا هونا چاهيئے کِ quainted with (lit. such as may be knowing well) the laws of government.'

(and if the king look (lit. be looking) أور جو باذشاء بيدار هو سلطنت کے کارو بار پر توجہ کرتا ہو تو كِسِي طرح سلطنت ميں خلل نہیں آتا

watchfully after the affairs of his kingdom, no disturbance by any means enters the realm.'

there is no such sentence in his 'أَسْكَ كُلام مبن كُوئِي فِقْرِهِ أَيسا نہیں ھی جس سے کسی کِی بد خواهبي ٺابت هوتي هو

discourse whereby malevolence towards any one may be proved.'

III. THE PAST POTENTIAL.

472. The Past Potential is employed when it is indicated that a thing may, might, or must have happened. It has two forms, corresponding to those of the Present Potential, but no distinction is generally made between them: eg.

(Your Majesty may (or must) have آپ نے بہہ بُبت سُنی هوگی heard this couplet.'

God knows what their state may 'خدا جانے أُنكِي كيا حالت مُوثى هوگبي have been.'

(هُوئِي .50) هوگِي کَيا هِي مَکانَ دل حسّب بنا هوگا

what a very charming residence بحِس وفت تَسَارِي اِس كِي must have been made when it was first constructed' (lit. when its preparation may have taken place'). 'he mentions the kindnesses which he جو دُوسْرِي شَخْص يا أُسْكے or his forefathers may have done

'بُرُرگوں كِي نِسْبِت هُولْے هوں

'بُرُرگوں كِي نِسْبِت هُولْے هوں بيان كُرْتا هَي

نین عرب سی (do you also mention whatever تیری گُرود نے جو ظُلّم آدمِیوں کے oppression your tribe may have suffered at the hands of men.'

Rem. The third of the above examples is thus rendered in Prof. Monier Williams' Hindūstānī Grammar (p. 136, § 510): "When it shall be repaired, what a charming place it will be made." But although this tense may sometimes be rendered in English by the Future Perfect, it is never used in the sense of, and can certainly never be rendered by, the Future Indefinite.

IV. THE PAST CONDITIONAL.

- 473. The Past Conditional corresponds to the English Past Perfect Subjunctive. It has two forms, the one (which is that most commonly used) consisting simply of the imperfect participle of a verb; the other of the perfect participle in combination with the imperfect participle of the verb U.s.
- 474. The Past Conditional is used in correlative conditional clauses that depend upon اگر, or any particle having the sense of اگر. In the leading clause it may generally be rendered in English by the Future Perfect Subjunctive: e.g.

had you seen what I have seen, you ' اگر تُو وُد دیکھتا جو مَین نے دیکھا 'mad you seen what I have seen, you ضمی هرگِز اُنگے یاس نہ آتا سامیہ سے میں میں میں اسلامیہ اسلامیہ

جو مجہے مرید کڑنے کی خواهِش if the desire to make a disciple had نه هوتي تو مُيں چورکِي چرّب زبانِی سے فریب نہ کھاتا

of what use would a blind son have ' اندها بِسِتّا تُمهاري كس كام آتا؟ جو کُچھ بیٿا کرتا مَیں بھي کے سکنا ہوں

been to you? I too can do whatever a son would have done.' (The is here under- اگر هوتا stood in both sentences.)

not possessed me, I should not

have been deceived by a thief's

oiliness of speech.'

so that the evils which would result 'نا کہ اُنٹکے فساد سے جو ضرر پیدا هوتے نہ هونے بائیں

(lit. would have resulted) from his mischief (were he permitted to practise it) be not allowed to happen.'

had any one else committed such ' اگر کسی آور نے یہ حرکت بے سفنی کی هوتی اُسکی بوتِیاں کٹوا چیلوں کو بالقتِی

senseless impropriety of conduct, I would have had him cut into mince-meat, and portioned it out to the kites.'

you would have been unjustly (or 'تُو ناحق مارا گيا هوتا پر جه گيا ncedlessly) killed, (had you been killed), but you (have) escaped.'

Rem. a. The condition, as we have shown in some of the above examples, is sometimes omitted. It is occasionally implied in a negative clause preceding the principal clause: e.q. مَس نے أُس مبس كُم اللہ عندان اللہ عند I perceived nothing grand ' شکود نہ دیکھی جو زور اُس کا دریافّت کرتا in him to make me test (lit. that I should have tested) his strength." This sentence is taken from the Khirad Afroz (p. 62), and the following note upon it by the editor of the work serves to show how completely the Past Conditional Tense is misunderstood by European grammarians: "The agrist instead of the present here, and a neuter verb instead of an active, might well be expected. As it is, the sentence is quite ungrammatical."

Rem. b. As it is sometimes necessary to render the Past Perfect Indicative of the Urdū by the English Past Imperfect, so the Past Conditional has occasionally to be rendered in English by the Past Imperfect Subjunctive. Such is the case in the fourth of the above examples. (cf. § 457.)

475. Instead of the Past Conditional, the Past Perfect Indicative is occasionally used in the principal clause, for the sake of greater vividness; but it may be rendered in English by the Past Indefinite; as

had it not been for this wise enemy, اگریہ دانا دُشمن نہ ہوتا my work was well nigh gone from my hands, and my life brought to a close in (pursuit of) this ider.'

476. The Past Conditional is also used to express a wish for a thing that is regarded as unattainable, and is then commonly preceded by the conjunction کاشک or کاشک 'O that!' 'would that!' e.g.

'would that I (lit. we) had not left thom behind there!

would that I had not cherished a بندگی پَبدا نه کِی هوتِی اَور بِبه devoted attachment to you, and that you (lit. the master) had not shown for me the tenderness which you have shown and still show (lit. which you are showing)!

Rem. The use of کاشکے however is not always necessary; a wish may be implied even in a conditional sentence: e.g. اگرزید هوتا تو کیا 'If Zaid were (or, had been) here, how nice it would be (or, would have been)' = '1 wish Zaid were (or had been) here.'

e. THE PASSIVE VOICE.

- 477. When the agent of an act is to be named, the Active Voice must be employed (except in such tenses as are composed of a perfect participle of directly transitive verbs, which are undoubtedly passive in construction, though regarded as active by those who speak Urdū). But the subject of a sentence is frequently not specified, either because it is not known, or it is not desired to mention it. The speaker, however, has the option of expressing himself personally by such forms us لوگت کہتے کیں or لوگت کہتے کیں 'people say' (Fr. on dit), کہنے والا کہنا کی one calls' (or 'it is called'), or کہلاتا ہی 'one says, or one who is in a position to say, says;' or by means of the Passive Voice used impersonally, in the third person singular masculine; as نیکیا جائیگا 'it will be seen to;' or personally as explained in the next paragraph.
- 478. The personal passive is commonly used in $Urd\bar{u}$; the direct object or accusative of the active voice becoming the subject of the passive: e.g.
- 'when a hole a yard deep was dug.' جب ایک گزیمیتی گڑھا کپوداگیا 'it (the following fact) has been خمت کِی کِتابوں میں یہ بات proved in philosophical works.'

نجب جہُوتی بات کِسِی کِی 'when a lie is told regarding any one نسّبت عَیب نِکالْنے کے واسّطے to make it appear that he has بیان کی جائے faults.'

you had been unjustly killed, but ' تُو نا حنى مارا گيا هوتا پر بھے گيا you escaped.'

Rem. If the accusative in the active voice be constructed with کو, the same form may be retained in the passive; but the passive then becomes impersonal: e.g. يَانْكَارِ كِي لِحَاظَ سِي اگر أَسْكُو بَهِي دِيكِهَا جِاوِي 'if it too be viewed as a memorial;' lit. 'if it be looked at in reference to it also as a memorial.'

479. If the verb in the active voice governs two accusatives, that which has the nominative form, or which is next to the verb, becomes the nominative to the passive: as

if the two be compared;' lit. 'if comparison in reference to the two be made.'

ن 'it is right that that person be called 'it is right that that person be called بنائے کار کہا جاوی the architect of the work;' lit. 'it is right that architect of the work be called or said in reference to that person.'

Rem. a. As the perfect participle is often used as an abstract (verbal) substantive, and the verb المجنف is also employed in other constructions than that of the passive voice, many expressions which are not passive are mistaken for such by European grammarians: e.g. نبيس جاتا 'I cannot bear to see (it),' lit. 'seeing, or seeing it, by mo is impossible' (not, "it is not seen by me:" ef. § 426).

Rem. b. Whether the passive be personal or impersonal, it is termed by Urdū grammarians مَا لَمْ يُسَمّ فاعِلُهُ mā lam yusamma fā'iluhu, 'a

verb of which the agent is not named.' In the case of a personal passive, the subject is called قائِم مقام فاعِل 'that which stands in the place of the agent.'

Rem. o. Impersonal actives, like our it rains, it snows, etc., are as a rule expressed personally in Urdū: e.g. پاني پڙتا هي, or پاني پڙتا هي 'it rains,' lit. 'rain, or water, falls, or rains;' but the expression برستا هي مامره, alone, is also used.

f. CAUSAL VERBS.

480. The construction of causal verbs has been explained at length in § 199, et seq. If the primitive verb is intransitive, the causal is simply a transitive verb, and is constructed like other simple transitive verbs that take a single objective complement in the accusative; ar منز کو کون جلانا که 'who is shaking the table?' But if the primitive verb is transitive, the causal takes two objective complements in the accusative, which are constructed according to the rules laid down in § 348 and Rem.: e.g. مَن نَو دُ تَعِيلِي 'give me water to drink;' مُن نُو دِ كَيَالِيَ يُلْوَ وَ مَنْ اللهُ وَلَا اللهُ اللهُ اللهُ عَلَى اللهُ وَلَا اللهُ اللهُ عَلَى اللهُ اللهُ وَلَا اللهُ اللهُ عَلَى اللهُ اللهُ عَلَى اللهُ اللهُ اللهُ اللهُ عَلَى اللهُ اللهُ اللهُ اللهُ عَلَى اللهُ اللهُ اللهُ عَلَى اللهُ ا

g. COMPOUND VERBS.

481. Compound Verbs are of seven' kinds; namely, Intensives, Potentials, Completives, Continuatives formed with an imperfect participle, Frequentatives or Con-

¹ By an oversight the Continuatives formed with imperfect participles, and Transitives formed with conjunctive participles, have been omitted in the enumeration of the compound verbs in § 218. The oversight has been noticed in the errata, and the reader is requested to make the corrections there pointed out.

tinuatives formed with a perfect participle, Desideratives, and Transitives formed with a conjunctive participle. To the remarks already made concerning these (see § 208, et seq.) we may here add the following:

Rem. In some intensive compounds, the verb which indicates the act is placed last and conjugated, the intensifying member preceding it and remaining unchanged: e.g. أمار دِيا = دي مارا (or he) laid on to (him); 'قلك دِيا = دي قلل 'I (or he) threw or dashed (him or it) down.'

2), 3) Potentials and Completives must always be constructed actively in the tenses composed of the perfect participle, as in the other tenses, since the verbs سُنا and سُنا are intransitive: e.g. سُنا (not شرم نے 'we have already heard.'

Rem. For the idiomatic use of the Past Indefinite Tense of verbs compounded with خُلنا, see § 210.

4) Continuatives, formed with an inflected imperfect participle, and one of the verbs ناج or رهنا منا, cannot but take the active construction

in all the tenses, as رهنا or رهنا are intransitive verbs (cf. § 481, 1): e.g. وهنا or وُمْ إِسِي طرح بكّت رهّتِي (she keeps on (or is always) prating in this same way.'

ti kept مَي تمام دِن اَور تمام رات پانِي ميں هاته پاؤں مارا كِيا striking (out) my hands and legs in the water the whole day and the whole night.'—Continuatives are also formed by prefixing an inflected perfect participle to the verb جائيد (see § 214, b): e.g. بالا عُذر كِيئے جائيد 'go on doing what I say without demur.'

Rem. We must here repeat that whenever a verbal substantive in any form is compounded with a transitive verb, the compound verb is actively constructed in all the tenses of the active voice: e.g. آدُوي کِي اَ 'a man's voice was heard' (lit. 'gave a hearing,' i.e. 'made itself heard'); دو آدُوي دِکهائي دِيك 'two men showed themselves, or appeared.'

7) Transitives formed with a Conjunctive Participle cannot in any case be passively constructed, for the reason given in § 481, 1: e.g. أن 'I have brought the book with me;' كتاب كو اپنے ساتھ لايا هُوں (أن كتاب كو اپنے ساتھ لايا هُوں (أن كتاب كو اپنے ساتھ لايا هُوں (أن كتاب كو يہاں نے كيا 'he left the boy behind here.'

Rem. Although the participle which most commonly occurs in these compounds is that of the verb لينا 'to take,' there is nothing in the nature of the construction to restrict it to this participle: خور "خان 'to leave behind,' دي جانا 'to leave, or give on (one's) way,' etc., are compounds just as much as لآ يا and its centraction 'نا 'to come with, to bring' are; and in the mouth of a native the former no more signify "having left, to go," and "having given, to go," than the latter signifies having taken, to come.

482. Nominals, Staticals, Inceptives, Permissives, etc., are not compound verbs (see §§ 205, 213, 216). Of the Nominals we shall have more to say further on. The construction of the participles in statical forms has been fully explained in § 421, et seq. The Inceptives, etc., call for little notice beyond a few examples of their use:

- 1) Inceptives.—A gerund in the locative case, with the governing postposition suppressed, is used in connection with the verb الله which usually (though not invariably) follows the gerund, and in this construction takes the signification of to begin: as الله هاته بكر كركمت لك 'he took hold of his hand, and began to say;' انسوس كرنه لله أس كا 'he began lamenting his ill-luck;' السوس كرنه لله أس كا 'and repeatedly looking at his face, he became agitated and began weeping.'
- 2) Permissives.—An infinitive in the dative form of the accusative, with the postposition و suppressed, is constructed with the verb دید. which in this construction has the sense of to allow or permit: as حویلي دو اگر پاک صاف پاتے هَيں 'let (him) remain in the house;' میں رهنے دو اگر پاک صاف پاتے هَيں 'if they find (them) unpolluted, they permit (them) to enter.'
- 3) Acquisitives.—The same construction is employed as in Permissives, the verb ناپ, in the sense of to get or obtain permission, or a chance or opportunity, to be allowed, taking the place of دینا: عند د کرنے پاوی 'let him not be allowed to look towards the sky;' کی طرف نگاد نہ کرنے پاتا تھا 'nor was any one permitted to see me.'
- 4) Desideratives.—In these an infinitive constructed as in the Permissives, etc., is used in connection with the verbs المائلة على and المائلة, 'to wish, or want;' as إلى المحافظة على '1 wish to see your horse;' هم النّمة هي 'he wants to go home.' With the verb لمائلة however, the infinitive more generally takes the nominative form of the accusative: as آنا على محلّي دُوسَري حبيق كي آنا هه ولا محافظة هي 'when a bee of another hive wishes to come;' حافظة هي في محلّي بر بس إسترقاق فابض أور مُتصرف هونا جاهينگ (they will unjustly desire to seize and apply to (their own) use the earnings of others.'

483. Nominal Verbs. — The so-called Nominals are commonly, though incorrectly, regarded as Compound Verbs. They consist simply of a verb and a predicative substantive or adjective, which is in the nominative case if the verb is a neuter one denoting existence (either simple or modified), and in the accusative (the nom. form) if the verb is transitive. In the first of these cases the verb agrees with its proper subject (unless the predicative substantive is defined by a genitive or adjective, § 293); and a predicative adjective, if it be declinable, also agrees in gender and number with the subject: as

if he shall not be reared in my اگریبه میري رُوبرُو ترَّبِیَت نه presence.'

'all these seven girls were standing.' یے ساتوں لؤکیاں کپڑی تھیں۔ 'that their morals become correct.' کِ اِنکے اخلاق دُرُست ھو جائبں 'and one's helping another is possible أور إعانت ایک دُوسْری کِی جب only when they dwell together.'

Rem. a. The predicative noun most commonly comes immediately before the verb, as in the above examples; but it may also follow the verb, as is frequently the case in poetry: e.g. آيسے مِهُمَان کِي تو لازِم the heart of such a guest ought indeed to be (esteemed) precious.'

Rem. b. Even what are clearly phrases are erroneously classed by European grammarians among what they term "Nominal Compounds." Now in phrases the substantive and verb stand to each other in relations distinct from those specified above, the substantive being either in the nominative as the subject of the verb, or in an oblique case: e.g. أَنْ كُو 'they remembered' (properly, 'recollection came to them'); يَاكُ اَنَا هَا اللهُ اللهُ

484. In the case where a predicative noun in the accusative is added to a transitive verb, the verb may be one which requires a single objective complement alone, or it may be a factitive verb (see § 349). In the first of these cases the predicative substantive necessarily becomes the subject of the verb in those tenses which are passively constructed with the Agent case: e.g. أَنْ مَارِي مَارِي وَالْمَا وَلَا وَالْمَا وَالْمَا وَالْمَا وَالْمَا وَلِيْعِلَّ فَالْمَا وَلَا وَالْمَا وَلَا وَلَا وَلَا وَلَا وَالْمَا وَالْمَا وَلَا وَالْمَا وَلَا وَالْمَا وَالْمَا وَلَا وَلَا وَالْمَا وَلَا وَلَا وَالْمَا وَلَا وَلَا وَالْمَا وَالْمَا وَلَا وَالْمَا وَلَا وَلَا وَالْمَا وَالْمَا وَلَا وَلَا وَلَا وَلَا وَلَا وَلَا وَالْمَا وَلَا وَالْمَا وَلَا وَلَا وَلَا وَلَا وَلَا وَلَا وَالْمَا وَلَا وَالْمَا وَلَا وَلَا وَالْمَا وَلَا وَ

شرچنّد أس فَعْل كِي كُنّْجِي 'much as they searched for the key of that lock, it was not found' (properly, 'much as the key of that lock was made search for by them,' etc.).

he dismissed the demon' (properly, 'there was performed by him the act of dismissing in reference to the demon').

ا گَارِِّي کَيْرِي کِي 'he made the eart stationary' ('the eart was made stationary by him').

أوّي كو كهڙا كِي 'he made the cart stationary' (properly, 'it was made stationary by him in respect to the cart').

Rem. a. The only instances in which a factitive verb (in the passively constructed tenses) can agree with the complementary accusative are those in which by a change of construction this becomes really or virtually the only accusative in the sentence: e.g. 1) when a sentence following the verb takes the place of the object; as عرض کیا ک 'he made representation, saying;' (here however some writers would put the verb in the mase. sing. عرض کیا ک, to agree with the objective clause (see § 307); 2) when the place of the object is supplied by a substantive which is governed in the genitive by the predicative substantive; as بادشاه نے اُسکی تعریف کی 'the king praised it' ('the act of praising was performed by the king in respect of it'); 3) when the factitive verb is connected by أور تنبیه کی 'he reproved and admonished the magistrate's peons.'

Rem. b. If the predicative substantive is determined by a genitive, it may be separated from the verb by one or more words; as أَنْ اللَّهُ اللَّهُ عَلَيْهُ عَلِيْهُ عَلَيْهُ عَلِيْهُ عَلَيْهُ عَلَيْهُ عَلَيْهُ عَلَيْهُ عَلَيْهُ عَلَيْهُ عَلِيْهُ عَلَيْهُ عَلِي عَلَيْهُ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهُ عَلَيْهُ عَلِهُ عَلَيْهُ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهِ عَل

CHAPTER XI.

PARTICLES.

I. ADVERBS.

485. The rules for the construction of adverbs are given in § 283, et seq. Sentences like the following are in nowise opposed to those rules, since نر نو نهن is both a negative adverb and a negative verb (= ند کنی, see § 148, Rem.), and in the latter sense therefore may stand last in the sentence:

the form and fashion of one agrees 'ایک کِی سجّد هم سے دُوسْرِی کا not with the shape and figure of another.'

there is no order to open the gate ' اِس وَقَّت دَرُّوازِه کَهُولُنِي کَا حُکُم at this time.'

486. The particle ت, which has both a conditional and an emphatic force, is often added to the negative forming in the one case an alternative conjunction (see § 499), in the other an emphatic adverb signifying no indeed.

سب اپنے کام میں مضروف کیں 'he looked, and lo! they were all engaged in their respective tasks.'

487. The adverb کہاں 'where?' is idiomatically joined to two different subjects to indicate a very great difference, marked contrast, or incompatibility, between them or their circumstances: as

otherwise what possibility was there of our meeting?' (lit. 'where I and where thou? our paths lay so wide apart that we could never have met, but for this accident').

this speech is quite unsuitable to تُو کہاں آوریہہ بات کہاں .

thy position.'

there is no comparison between ' کہاں راجا بیوج کہاں گنگا تیلی

King Bhoj and Gangā the oilman.'

Rem. Compare with this use of كہاں — كہاں that of क्क-का kva-kva in Sanskrit.

488. The adverb (or) may be added for emphasis to any part of speech, and may generally be rendered in English by very, the very same, but, alone, etc., though sometimes simple stress upon the word to which it is joined (shown in writing by the use of italies) is sufficient: e.g.

(my) heart alone knows.' برل هِي جانّتا هَي '(my) heart alone knows.' ايک هِي جانّتا هَي 'in one single (or in but one) assault.' 'وهِي جوان آيا 'the very same young man came.' وهِي جوان آيا 'but (after all) she did yield to her cajoling.'

II. PREPOSITIONS AND POSTPOSITIONS.

- 489. Prepositions and Postpositions serve to show the relation of one substantive to another, or to some other word in the sentence.
- 490. Some postpositions govern a noun in the Formative only, some in the genitive case only, some take the governed noun in the Formative or the genitive. Lists of the prepositions and postpositions together with the case they govern are given in §§ 236-240. The following are a few that have special significations or uses in addition to those specified in the lists:
- 1) اگے 'before,' is used of comparison: e.g.

 'such is the reflection of the flowersarden on the ground that, compared therewith, the painting of
 Mānī (Manes) stands second, it first.'

Rem. The postposition ... 'in front,' may be used in the same

2) ساته, which as a postposition signifies 'with,' 'along with,' as a preposition, with a demonstrative pronoun following, usually signifies in addition to, notwithstanding or although (= the Persian باوضف or باوضف: e.g.

Mohan went away to Ilāhābād موهن رَيد كے ساتھ اِلْآباں چلا گيا (Allahabad) along with Zaid.'

in addition to that life will pass 'in addition to that life will pass کتیگی with trouble (or difficulty).'

notwithstanding that (or although) ساته أَسْكَ كِ وُهُ آپ چهُوتًا أور he himself be small and feeble and his foe powerful, there is still hope of victory.'

3) طرف 'towards,' 'to,' is used both of *local* direction and of *feeling* or *conduct*, generally preceding, in this sense, an Arabic verbal noun: e.g.

he is gone towards (or to) the market;' (the corresponding Hindī postpositions in this construction are تك and كو).

tender compliments from me' (lit. 'from my side' = Fr. de ma part).

he becomes inclined to (fond of) very بُرِي بُرِي طرف مَيَلان (the becomes inclined to (fond of) very evil things; (the corresponding Hindī postposition in this sense is برير الم

to become suspicious of (lil. to-کِسِي شَخْص کِي طرف سے بدگماں) wards) a person.'

'he needs the labours of several کئِی شخصوں کے کاموں کِی طرف persons.'

Rem. In both the above senses the postposition die is the Urdū rendering of the Arabic preposition the idiom in sentences like the last three of the above is borrowed from the Arabic. The postposition relief, is ide, direction, is rarely used of feeling or conduct.

4) نزدیک 'near,' as a postposition, is often used in the sense of in one's opinion (like the Lat. apud, and the Fr. chez), a sense in which تریب and پاس do not occur: e.g. نزدیک 'in the opinion of the wise.'

491. A feminine postposition requires the noim it governs in the genitive to be constructed with \leq in agreement with itself; but if the postposition be used as a preposition, i.e. precede the noun it governs (which can only occur when it is a Persian or Arabic word), the genitive of the governed noun will be constructed with \leq (see § 243): e.g.

'(ilke a star.' ناری کِی مانِنْد but مانِنْد تاری کے بائد ، 'like a star.' اُس کِی بابت اُس کے , 'concerning him or it.' اُس کے 'they are like physicians and astro logers.'

بمدد عمّل کے, 'by the aid of the understanding.' نامہاری سموجِب فرّہ انے کے, 'in accordance with (or according to) your ordering (= order).'

In the first of these cases the construction is that of the Hindī, in the second that of the Persian (whence the occurrence of none but Persian or Arabic prepositions in the construction).¹ The use of the genitive affix \leq is due to the influence of a Persian preposition (most commonly a), which governs the postposition in the genitive. This preposition, though not expressed in the case of بابند, etc., is implied in the construction, and, being originally a masculine noun, requires the use of the affix \leq with the genitive of the governed noun. The same

¹ This construction is not only employed with "some of the feminine prepositions," as European grammarians say, but with all such as are Persian or Arabic words. Nor is it "arbitrary" no Urdū scholar would, we are assured, say or write abitive maining paracūne $k\bar{\imath}_{i}$, 'like a moth;' but as no distinction is usually made in writing between maphūl and matrūf ye, it is quite possible for an Englishman to mistake $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \int_{i}^{n} k\bar{\imath}_{i}$, when the writer intends it for $le(\sum)$.

e.g. بے مرّضِي حُنُور کے , without her highness' pleasure; بے مرّضِي حُنُور کے , without her highness' pleasure; بے مرّضِي مُنْور کے , without advice and counsel. It is true that we also meet with such constructions as اُسْکِي بے مرّضي (se. بے), with his or her displeasure; but in such cases بے is a prefix, not a separate preposition, and the words بے مرّضی, etc., are treated as simple Hindī postpositions.

Rem. If the preposition من is expressed, even a preceding genitive is constructed with the affix خ : as قادِر مُعلَاق خُدا کے بنسبت آذیبی , how very insignificant is man compared to the Almighty! And not only does من, expressed or implied, require the genitive to be constructed with خ , but, according to the native grammarians, خ is in some instances used as the equivalent of من (see § 318, Rem.).

III. CONJUNCTIONS.

- 492. The combination of coordinate and subordinate propositions is effected by means of conjunctions.
 - Rem. Lists of some of the principal conjunctions are given in § 247.
- 493. Coordinate Combination.—The conjunctions used in coordinate combination are the Connective (Copulative, Disjunctive, Alternative, Negative), Adversative, Exceptive, and Conclusive.
- 494. The Connective conjunctions do not affect the structure of a sentence.), (or), 'and,' is the one most used simply to connect words and sentences. But the omission of it (Asyndeton) is of frequent occurrence (see §§ 217, 275, 362).

- is also used idiomatically to denote:
- 1) The almost simultaneous occurrence of the acts indicated by the verbs in two propositions which it connects; as نَوْر تُمياري أُلَّهِن كَ اللهِ أَلَّهِ أَوْر خرابِي آلِي اللهِ أَلَّهُ وَرَابِي آلِي اللهِ أَلَّهُ وَمِارِي أَلَّهُ وَمِارِي أَلِي آلِي اللهِ أَلَّهُ وَمِارِي أَلِي اللهِ أَلَّهُ وَمِارِي آلِي آلِي اللهِ أَلَّهُ وَمِارِي آلِي آلِي اللهِ أَلَّهُ وَمِارِي آلِي اللهِ أَلَّهُ وَمِارِي آلِي اللهِ أَلَّهُ وَمِارِي آلِي اللهِ أَلَّهُ وَمِارِي آلِي آلِي اللهِ أَلْهُ وَمِارِي آلِي اللهِ أَلْهُ وَمِارِي آلِي آلِي اللهِ أَلْهُ وَمِارِي آلِي آلِي اللهِ أَلْهُ وَمِيْرَامِي أَلْهُ وَمِارِي اللهِ أَلْهُ وَمِارِي أَلْهُ وَمِارِي اللهِ أَلْهُ وَمِارِي أَلْهُ وَمِارِي أَلْهُ وَمِارِي اللهِ أَلْهُ وَمِارِي اللهِ أَلْهُ وَمِيْرَامِي أَلْهُ وَمِارِي أَلْهُ وَمِيْرَامِي أَلْهُ وَمِنْ أَلْهُ وَمِيْرَامِي أَلَّهُ وَمِيْرَامِي أَلَّهُ وَمِيْرَامِي أَلَّهُ وَمِيْرَامِي أَلَّهُ وَمِيْرَامِي أَلْهُ وَمِيْرَامِي أَلْمِيْرَامِي أَلَامِي أَلْمِيْرَامِي أَلَامِي أَلِي أَلِي أَلْمِيْرَامِي أَلَامِي أَلَامِي أَلْمِيْرَامِي أَلْمِيْرَامِي أَلْمِيْرَامِي أَلَامِي أَلِي أَلِي أَلْمِيْرَامِي أَلْمِيْرَامِي أَلْمِيْرَامِي أَلْمِيْرَامِي أَلْمِيْرَامِي أَلْمِيْرَامِي أَلْمِيْرَامِي أَلِي أَلْمِيْرَامِي أَلْمِيْرَامِي أَلْمِيْرَامِي أَلِي أَلْمِيْرَامِي أَلْمِيْرَامِي أَلْمِيْرَامِيْرَامِي أَلْمِيْرَامِي أَلِي أَلْمِيْرَامِي أَلْمِيْرَامِي أَلِيْمِيْرَامِي أَلْمِيْرَامِي أَلِمِيْرَامِي أَلْمِيْرَامِي أَلْمِيْرَامِي أَلْمِيْرَامِي أَلِمِيْرَامِي أَلْمِيْرَامِي أَلْمِيْرَامِيْرَامِي أَلْمِيْرَامِي أَلْمِيْرَامِي أَلِمِي أَلْمِيْرَامِي أَلْمِيْرِامِي أَلْمِيْرَامِي أَلْمِيْرَامِي أَلْمِيْرَامِي أَلْمِيْرَامِي أَلْمِيْرَامِي أَلْمِيْرَامِي أَلْمِيْرَامِي أَلِمِيْرِي أَلِمِيْرَامِي أَلْمِيْرَامِي أَلِمِيْرَامِي أَلْمِيْرَامِي أ
- 2) Inseparable connection of two subjects; as مَي هُوں اُور (i.e. 'where you are I will be,' or 'I will stick to you wherever you are').
- 3) Defiance or threat; as مَس تُمْكُو =) بِيْرِ مَبْس هُوں اَور نُم هو hen I am and you are (i.e. 'now I will settle accounts with you'); اب تُو جان اَور برّا بنت جانے, now you know and the great idol will know ('the great idol will settle accounts with you').
- 496. The negative 3, repeated, has the signification of our neither—nor; but the conjunction أور is often prefixed to the second 3: e.g. نه ايك كو دُوسْري سے تكليف نه أشكو إس سے neither does one suffer inconvenience from another, nor that annoyance from this; نيسرى وُه كلام هَي كه أس ميس , the third is that speech wherein there is neither harm nor benefit.
- 497. The disjunctive conjunction يا 'or' (as an alternative الله 'cither—or'), is used in the sense of both the Latin rel and aul: e.g. برابر نه تها برابر به أبك برابر أبك برابر أبك برابر أبك برابر أبك مسافِر فخير يا بسافِر فخير يا , any traveller, (whether) a devotee or a man of the world, who enters this city.

Rem. يا ناه is sometimes used to indicate a remarkable contrast arising from a sudden change; as يا مُن سان هو گيا, but now there was that (such) display, and the next moment all became desolate.

- 498. The conjunction کی, which more commonly occurs in subordinate clauses, is also used as a disjunctive, signifying 'or:' e.g. وهاں تُم جاؤگے کہ مَسِیں, will you go there or shall I? تُم نے کُچھ عِلْم منْطِق کا بھي سِيکھا هَي کِ نہيں, have you learned anything of the science of logic also or not?
- 499. The compound conjunctions برقن and برقن and برقن and تبيس بنه ورقع من برقن الملاح الملح الملح

500. The Adversative conjunctions are مگر, لیکن , پر (which however is more commonly exceptive), بنک , etc., signifying but, yet, still, but rather, on the contrary. They are used in stating a proposition which alters, limits, or sets aside what has preceded, and do not affect the struc-

Rem. مگر is sometimes used, as in Persian, in the sense of شاید perhaps: ' as مگر أسكو گڼر كے دروازې پر as, this feelingless husband of mine perhaps saw him at the door of the house.

102. The Conclusive or Illative conjunctions are المنافعة على المنافعة والمنافعة ولمنافعة والمنافعة والمن

following are examples of their use: رَبِيلِ خَرِيلِي خَرَابِيلِ مُصْلَحَت يِهِ مَسْلَحَت يَهِ مَسْلَحَت مَسْلَع مَسْلَحَت مَسْلَحَت مَسْلَحَت مَسْلَحَت مَسْلَحَت مَسْلَحَت مَ

- 503. Subordinate Combination.—The conjunctions employed in subordinate combination are the Hypothetical, Temporal, Concessive, Comparative, Causal, and Final.
- 504. The Hypothetical conjunctions are جو, 'if,' جو, 'when,' etc. These are construed with the Indicative or the Subjunctive, as shown in § 466, 1) a, and 2), Rem. b. The regular correlative of the first two is ; that of the third تر. But the correlatives are not always expressed; and even the hypothetical particle is occasionally omitted, as in the following sentence: أس كِي خُوشِي يُوں هي when, or if, her pleasure took this course alone, what could I do?
- ibeing synonymous, the one is sometimes used for the other; as أوراگريه سب سامان, and even if all these pliances, and even if all these pliances be obtained, then even it is evident, etc.; جب آذمي كو أيسا , when a man acquires such knowledge, wisdom may thereby be utlained.

Rem. تو is now commonly used instead of تو as the correlative of جب

is sometimes used in the sense of جو أَسْكو كَبُولْكُر دِيكِهَا تَو وُهُ جَوَانِ أَور أُسْكِي رِنَّذِي سِركَتِّ as جب أَسْكو كَبُولْكُر دِيكِهَا تَو وُهُ جَوَانِ أَور أُسْكِي رِنَّذِي سِركَتِّ as; بجب when he opened it and looked, lo! that young man and his paramour were (lit. are) lying beheaded.

107. بب is occasionally used in the sense (1) of ب ب اب ب نام ۱۰ نام ۱۱ نام ۱

in combination with the postpositions (تلکت and عب (which however rarely occurs in modern Urdū), forms temporal conjunctions, signifying whilst, until, as long as; and the same postpositions are repeated after the correlative بن when this is expressed. These conjunctions are construed with the Indicative or the Subjunctive (the Aorist, which is however rendered in English by the Present Indicative), according as simple fact or contingency (design, etc.) is indicated. They are often followed by the negative (or رنب), and may then be generally translated 'as long as,' 'so long as:' e.g.:

- 510. The Comparative conjunctions are those which express a resemblance. They are شيخ 'as,' لويا 'as if:' e.g. گويا 'as if:' e.g. بخيسا رائے دابشلبم كا مُلْكَ آسُوده أور رعيّت فارغ بال تعيي مع Rāc Dābishtīm's kingdom was tranquit, and his subjects contented; هورگيز هوا أسكو نهيس لگتي گويا فائوس أسكي آسمان هي

the wind never touches it; (it is) as if the sky is its shade.

- 511. The Causal conjunctions are those which are used in stating a reason. They are , , and others which are etc. رُجُونْكِ رِكُيُونْكِ رِاسِ واسطے كِ as كِي وَنْكِ رِكْ وَنْكِ رِكْ وَاسْطِ compounds formed with . They may mostly be translated for, because, since, seeing that, inasmuch as, etc. The following are examples of اِسْكے دِل میں تو محبّت اب تلك باقِي هَي جو اِس :their use in her heart , جان كنَّدنِي كِي حالت مين أَسْكُو ياد كُرْتي هَي indeed affection still lingers, seeing that she remembers him in this death-agony; ميري يكزنے كي خاطِر جو قبُول كِيا هَي fulfil what you agreed , پُورا کروک ساری ڈیل میں زباں حلال کھی to for my capture, for in the whole body the tongue is (the only) free (and therefore responsible member); أشكى بات کا اِعْتِیار نہ کری اِس واسطے کِ حُعْل خور اکْثر اِعْتِیار کے فائل نہیں ہوتا let him put no faith in his statement, for a tale-bearer, generally speaking, is not deserving of eredit; زر و جواهر پر فریقّت ہونا دانِشْمنّدوں کا کام نہیں کیُوٹکِ وُد کِسِی کے پاس نہیں رحّتے۔ it is not the work of the wise to be infatuated with gold and jewels, since those (things) abide with no one.
- 512. Final conjunctions are used to denote the purpose or consequence of an action. They are constructed with the Subjunctive, as shown in § 467. To the examples there given may be added the following: شادِ بندر کے خَوف , through شادِ بندر کے مبادا چہیں لے کنیزکوں کو صندوقوں میں بند کِیا , through fear of the harbour-superintendent, they locked up their slave-girls in (their) chests, lest he should take them by force.

Rem. The particle \leq has other significations and uses besides those noticed above (§§ 498, 507, 511, 512). It is sometimes used (as in Persian) in the sense of if 'than;' but this can only occur in Persian construction: as أيكُ آدَمِي مري بهتركِ تمام شهر better one man perish than the whole city. It is of frequent occurrence as a simple explicatory particle: 1) at the head of an adjective (qualificative, descriptive), or conjunctive clause, as exemplified in § 390; 2) at the head of a saying or speech (مَقُولُ), which stands as the object of a preceding verb, or, generally, at the beginning of an objective clause: as مَرَى مُوجِهَا كِي يَسَ كُمَا كُرُ رَهِمَا هُمَا لَهُ وَعَالَى اللهُ اللهُ

CHAPTER XII.

ON THE DIRECT ORATION.

- 513. The indirect oration is rarely employed in Urdū. The words and thoughts of a person are usually expressed in the direct oration, introduced by the particle ξ , which however is frequently omitted (cf. also § 445): c.g.
- الفل جهاز سے معلّوم هُوا كَ أَس ship that the Antichrist dwelt in that island' (lit. 'I learned from the people of the ship "Antichrist lives, etc."').
- اگر یه قصّد هي که شهّر مسيس 'if it is your intention to enter the the city' (lit. 'if this is thy intention: "I will enter, etc."').
- ن بہن 'he told me my sister was sick' (lit. 'he said to me, "Thy sister is sick"').
- he pondered how he should earry 'فِكْر مِين گيا كِه كِس صُورت سے أَن away those rubies' (lit. 'how shall I carry away, ctc.').
- ن منیں نے أن سے كہا تُمهارى ساته 'I told them that I also would منیں بھي چلّه نگا مدود accompany them' (lit. 'I said to them, "I also will accompany you"").

APPENDIX.

ON THE CALENDAR.

The following remarks on the Musalman and Hinda Calendars are mostly taken from Forbes's Hinda-tana Grammar.

THE MOHAMMADAN CALENDAR.

"The Musalmans reckon by lunar time, their era called the Hole commencing from the day on which Mohammad retreated from Mekka to Medina; which, according to the best accounts, took place on Friday, the 16th of July (18th new style), a.p. 622. Their year consists of 12 lunations, amounting to 354 days and 9 hours, very nearly; and hence their New Year's Day will happen every year about cleven days earlier than in the preceding year."

"To find the Christian year corresponding to that of the Hijra, apply the following rule:—From the given number of Musalman years deduct three per cent., and to the remainder add the number 621.51; the sum is the period of the Christian era at which the given current Musalman year ends. This rule is founded on the fact that 100 lunar years are very nearly equal to 97 solar years, the difference being about eighteen days only."

"When great accuracy is required, and when the year, month, and day of the Mohammadan era are given, the precise period of the Christian era may be found very nearly, as follows:—Express the Musalman date in years and decimals of a year; multiply by 97; to the product add 621.54: and the sum will be the period of the Christian

"The Mohammadan or lunar months are made to consist of thirty and twenty-nine days alternately, but in a period of thirty years it is found necessary to intercalate the last month eleven times, so as to be reckoned thirty days instead of twenty-nine. The months retain their Arabic names in all Mohammadan countries, as follows:"

LUNAR MONTHS.

DAYS.	DA	YS.
möḥarram 30	بجب rajab	30
safar 29 صفر	sha'bān	2 9
rabī'u'l-awwal 30 ربيعُ آلاول	ramaṣān	30
rahī'u'ṣ-ṣānī ربع الثاني rahī'u'ṣ-ṣānī 29	shawwāl	29
rabi'u'l-ākhir	يَ الْمَعُدِدِ أَنْ يَ أَلْمُعُدِدِ أَلْمُعُدِدِ أَلْمُعُدِدِ	30
jumāda'l-awwa' 30 جُمادَي آلْـُول	(ka'da نَتِي ذِي قَعْدِهِ	30
jumāda ˈs̞-sānī) 29 29 إنتاني jumāda ʾl-ā <u>lsh</u> ir	ن يَ زِي ٱلْعِجَهُ (¿¿¿ أَلْعِجَهُ	20
ي آلآخِر j umāda'l-ā $rac{kh}{2}$ ir j	يَ ذِي حِجّه بَيَ ذِي حِجّه hijja	29

The following are the days of the week in Urdū, Hindī, and Persian:

	radu.	HINDI.	PERSIAN.
Sun.	itwar إتّوار	rabī-bār رىيبار	يكشنبه yak-shamba
Mon.	pīr پِبر (or سوموار)	80m-bār سومتبار	du-shamba دُو شنّبه
Tues.	mangal منتگل	mangal-bār منگلبار	sih-shamba سِهٔ شُنْبه
Wed.	budh ics	budh-bār بُدهْبار	-chahār چهار شنبه
Thurs.	jum'a جمعه رات	brihaspati- برهَسْپتبار	shamba -panj-sham پٽجشنبه
Fri.	rāt den jum'a .	bār sukru-bār سگربار	ba آفِينه ādīna
Sat.	sanīchar سنِاچر	sunībār سنِيبار	متغّه or مُنْتُ shamba
			or hafta

The Hindus regard the day but the Mohammadans regard it so that 'the night of a certain nifics 'the night of the previot 'Friday night,' is really 'Thu reckoning

THE

two parts, each called pull, 'lumb toplay of the light is the correspond to our solar month. The untail again is the correspond to our solar month. The untail again is the correspond two parts, each called pull, 'lumb toplay of the light is a shift second extends from full to new man, and is extend pull it is solar months, but by the durition of the month is the light in the light is solar months, but by the durition of the month beautiful in each. Hence although the month beautiful beautiful in the correspond to force there we do not desired as solar month, which happens once a three force there is a rule rate month, and the month so intermediate force there is a rule rate which preceded it, that is of the corresponding with the said the corresponding to the month and the month so intermediate force.

The era however which is compatible that the the live of Van northern half of India is the second of the second of the second of the second of the line of the line of the line of Upian.

Another common cra, especially a continue induction hand. It is called śāka, and date: " a sim signal of the first of the

नाल बहादुर शास्त्री राष्ट्रीय प्रशासन ग्रकादमी, पुस्तकालय Lal Bahadur Shastri National Academy of Administration, Library च्च स्तुरी MUSSOORIE.

यह पुस्तक निम्नाकित तारीख तक वापिस करनी है।
This book is to be returned on the date last stamped.

दिनांक Date	उधारकर्ता की संख्या Borrower's No.	दिनाक Date	उधारकर्ता की संख्या Borrower's No.
		Total decides consistent to the transfer of th	
-			
		<u> </u>	
-			
1		•	
;	:†		

निगम दिनार Date of Issue	उधारकर्ता की सम्या Borrower's No.	हस्ताक्षर Signature
_	-	_
	-	

LIBRARY

LAL BAHADUR SHASTRI National Academy of Ain natrar on MUSSODRIE

Acce ve 11.

- 1 Books are issued in the only but may have not an end arter if urgents, equien
- 5 An overdue cha ji 22 Pasa per day per volume with a pand
- 3. Books may be shown to the dest at the discreton of his Linux an.
- 5. Periodicals, Rive and Reference books may nor be save land may be consulted only in the original.
- 5. Books los le relor railin any way shall have be reprosed